Saturday Review

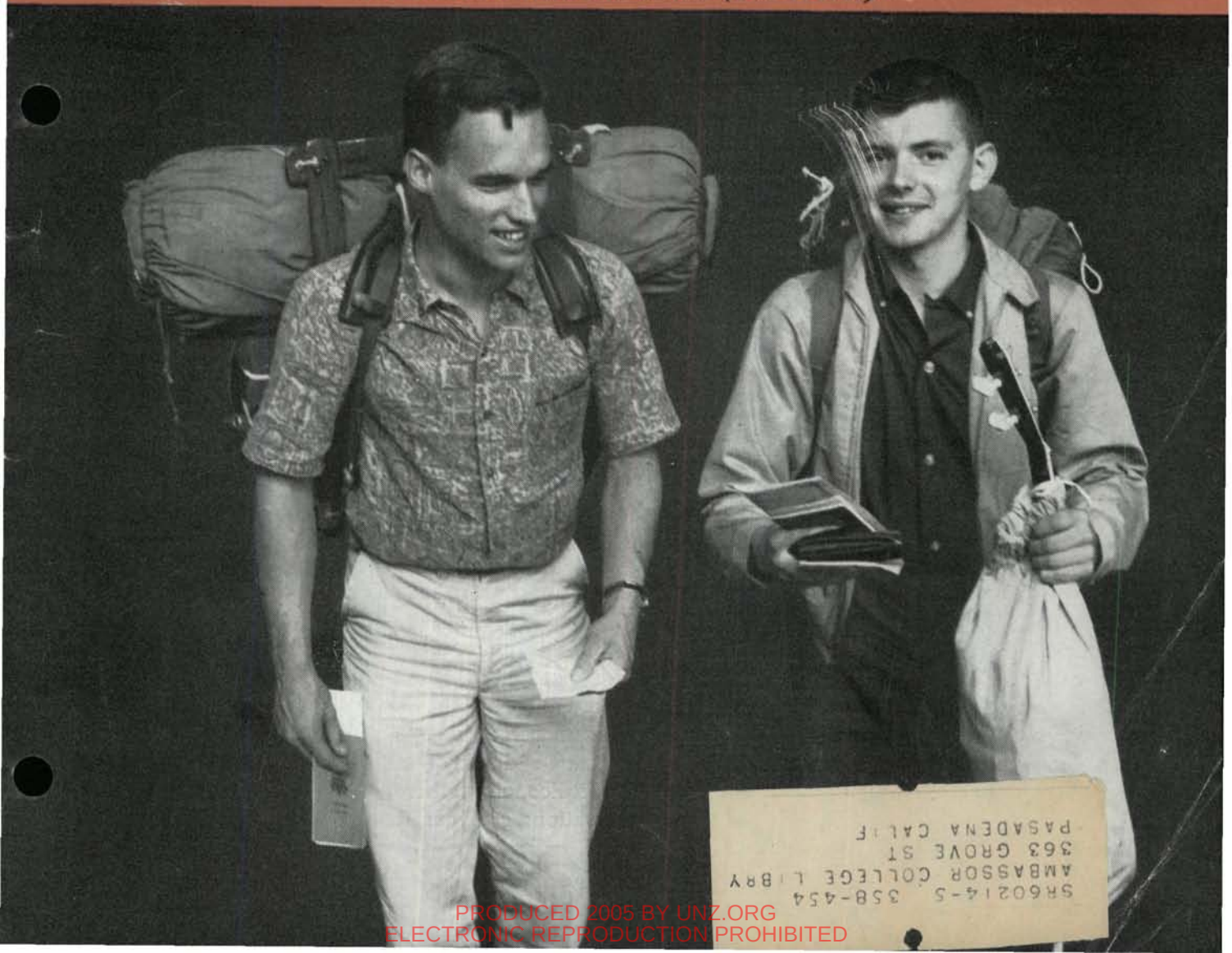
FEBRUARY 16, 1963 / 25¢

EDUCATION

FOREIGN LANGUAGES STAGE A COMEBACK

Articles by Fred M. Hechinger, Alfred S. Hayes, Alfred Friendly, Jr., and Donald D. Walsh

When Students Turn Statesmen (See Travel)



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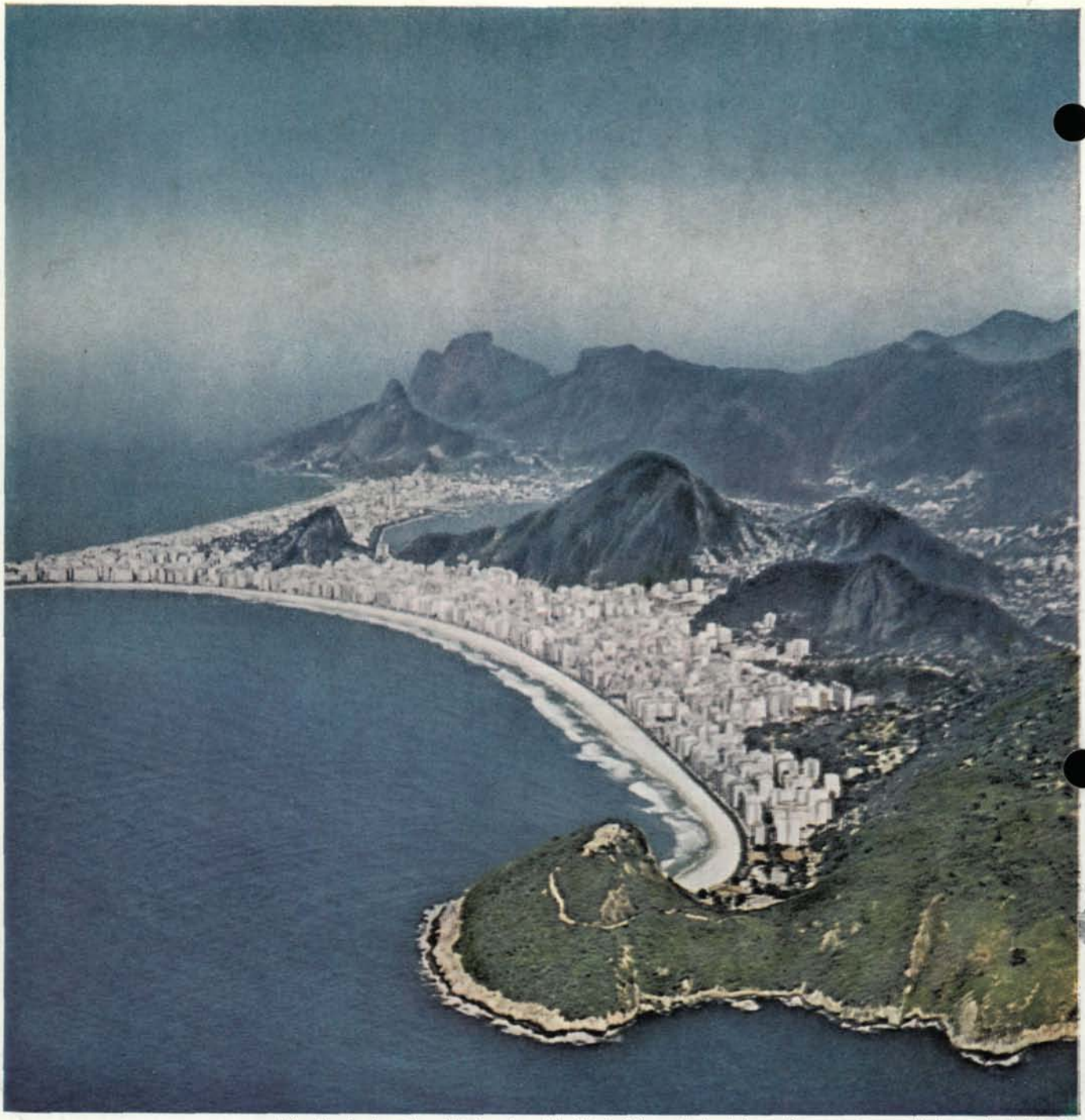

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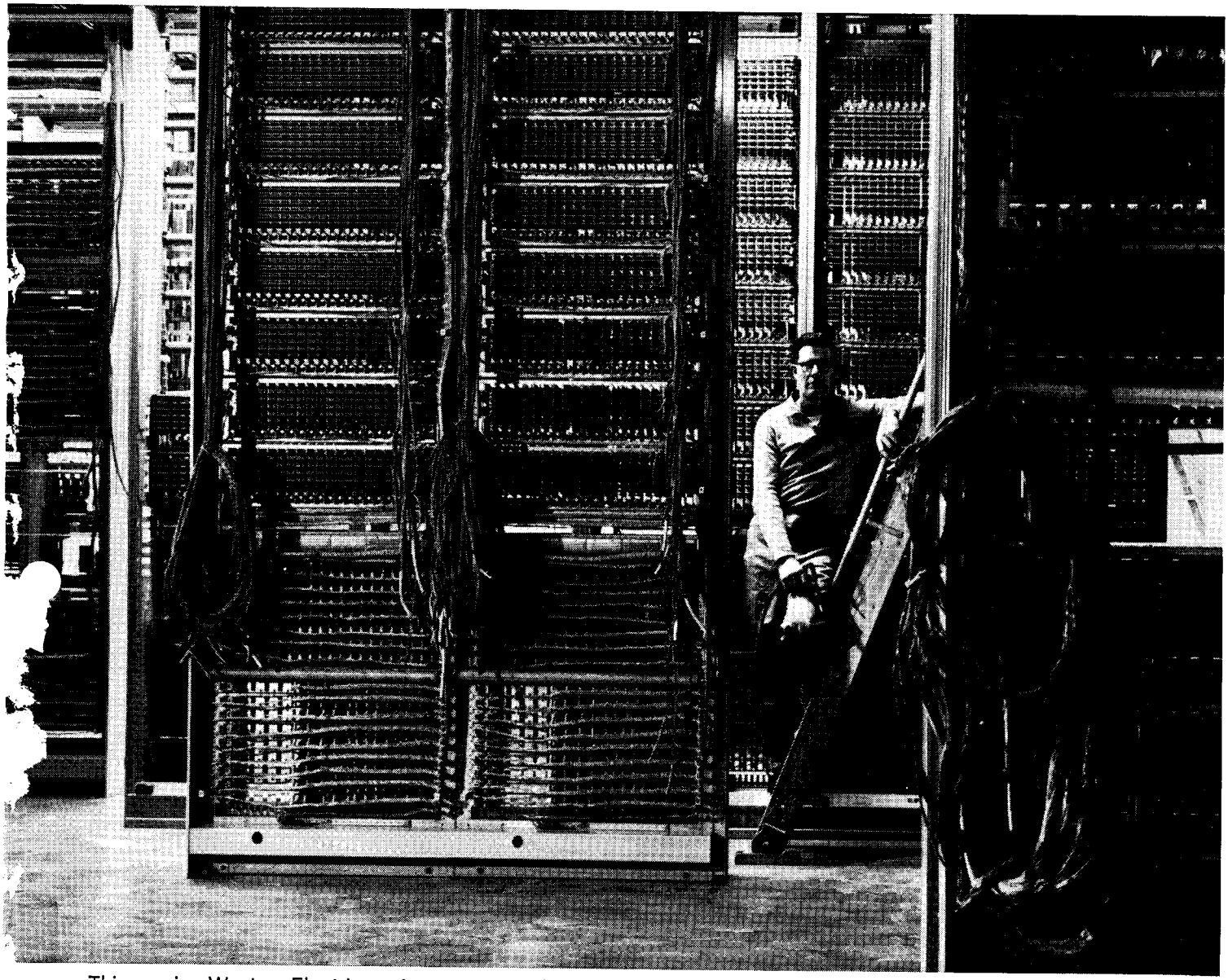

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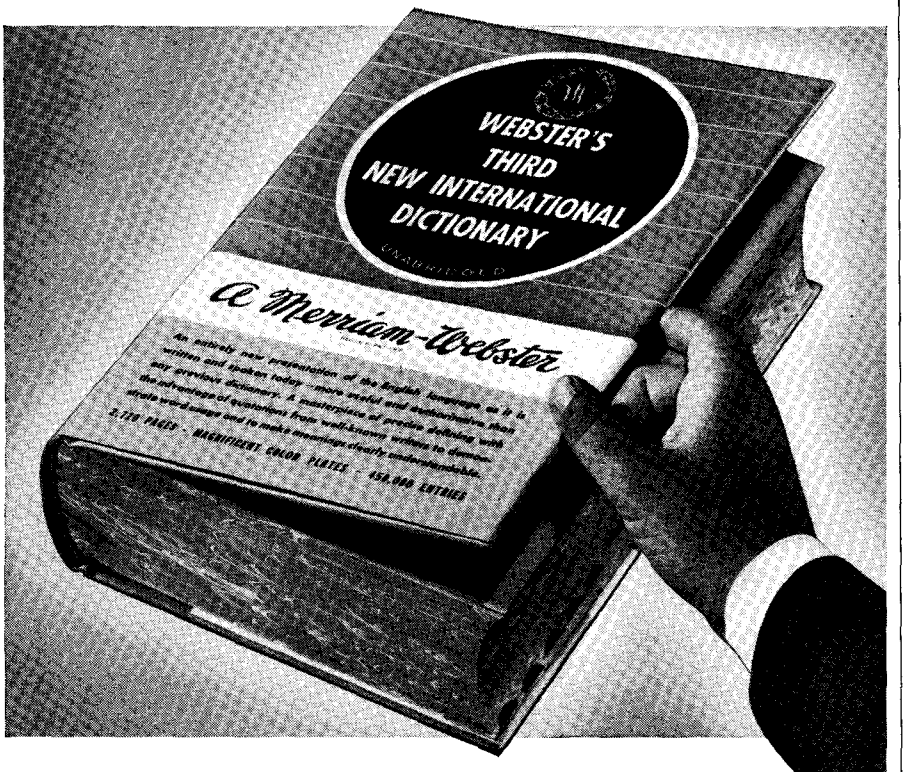

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Saturday Review

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Who cares about Profits?

The investor?

His concern is obvious. Only hope of reward entices his dollars from safe, but unproductive, hiding places.

The professor?

Endowments and gifts produce a substantial share of the income supporting higher education. Dwindling profits tighten budgets on the campus.

The government employee?

Government services come chiefly from taxes on profits of corporations and earnings of individuals. As profits go down, tax revenues feel the pinch.

The consumer?

Only profitable businesses can do the research and development work which bring new products, lower prices, and better things for better living to the consumer.

The union leader?

His constituents benefit when business is profitable. There can be no collective bargaining with bankruptcy.

The plant worker?

The security of his present job and his opportunities for advancement depend on the profits that stimulate employment and expansion.

The newspaperman?

His personal welfare depends substantially on the profitability of his paper —ask any man who works on a heavy loser.

The family?

The security of the employment of its wage earners depends on the profitability of the businesses they work for.

The mayor?

He knows that civic development can be realized effectively only when local business is operating profitably.

The baby?

Will its future be bright or dismal? Rising population demands vigorous economic growth, which in a free society can be powered only by profit incentives.

Who cares? All of us. Whether we recognize it or not, we are all affected, seriously and personally, by the profitability of our business enterprises. Indeed, only irresponsibility or indifference could characterize those who don't care. For quest of profit is he essence of national growth and national survival and an inseparable characteristic of the free society.

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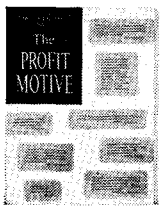

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THE PHOENIX NEST

The Lonely Throng

Edited by Martin Levin

IF ALL BUSINESS WERE LIKE SHOW BUSINESS

N. Y. Herald Tribune, Aug. 16: Entrepreneurs Samuel Frean and Saul Gotsall today announced the formation of a company to manufacture stainless steel waffle irons. At a trade party featuring bacon on waffle snacks, the metal men declared their appliance will be architecturally sound and esthetically . . .

Daily News, Aug. 18: Samuel Frean and Saul Gotsall lunched at "21" yesterday with executives of U.S. Steel. Reported topic of mutual interest: purchase of four and a half tons of stainless steel for proposed F&G Waffle Iron.

N. Y. World Telegram, Aug. 19: . . . Messrs. Frean and Gotsall have approached Edward Stone to blueprint the new product, while Le Corbusier is definitely committed to designing the iron interiors.

Journal-American picture caption, Aug. 20: Mr. and Mrs. Samuel Frean enjoy a samba at the Pierre, scotching rumors of a marital rift.

Walter Winchell, Aug. 22: Sam Frean and Saul Gotsall huddled at Sardi's yesternoon with Bethlehem Steel biggies. Subject: six tons of stainless steel for F&G Waffle Iron.

N. Y. World Telegram, Aug. 28: Underwriters Laboratories have approved the wiring on the forthcoming F&G Waffle Iron. Messrs. Frean and Gotsall have been unable to come to terms with Le Corbusier on the iron interiors, but the overall designer will be Mies Van der Rohe.

Leonard Lyons, Sept. 12: Appliance magnate Sam Frean, lunching at Toots Shor yesterday with executives of Mohawk Steel, recalled his first flyer in the metals field, thirty years before the proposed F&G Waffle Iron, due on the market this spring. Young Frean organized a group of neighborhood kids to canvass door to door for old bottle caps which he then sold to a junk dealer forty for a penny. Who was his most successful canvasser? A skinny kid named Bert Gotsall, brother of Frean's partner in F&G Waffle Iron, Saul Gotsall!

Dorothy Kilgallen, Sept. 18: Appliance tycoon Saul Gotsall hinted at El Morocco last night that he was about ready to announce the purchase of the necessary stainless steel for his F&G Waffle Iron. Could the presence in Saul's party of Swedish steel executive Lars Hjolmersfors and his lovely bride have anything to do with Saul's optimism?

N. Y. Herald Tribune, Sept. 21: Entrepreneurs Sam Frean and Ian Culpeper today announced the formation of a company to manufacture keg-lined drinking mugs. "I believe in this product and I'm going to devote myself to it night and day until we're on the market," Frean said during a trade party at which a Miss Keg-Mug was crowned by. . . .

Walter Winchell, Sept. 22: Dolly Frean, estranged wife of metals tycoon Sam Frean, at the Harwyn this Ayem to bon voyage ball-bearing exec Saul Gotsall, who flies to his new job today. No tears were shed, as Dolly expects to be passing through Stockholm this Yesvember. —Gordon Cotler.

• • •

WHERE ARE THE NAMES OF YESTERYEAR?

THERE was a time when everyone had a nickname. People don't have them nowadays. Perhaps it is because we are all too busy to familiarize ourselves with the personal idiosyncracies of others. Where are the names of yesteryear? Where are Fatso, Stinky, Butch? Where are Mouth, Schnozz, Lard, Greenie, and Cockeye?

They are now Melvin, Lester, Everett, or Ellsworth. In fact, I was in a supermarket the other day, trailing a woman with two kids, one of them a little boy in the cart. As she waited to check out her purchases, the little kid started to fuss and the lady said to the older: "Randolph, shuckle Barry."

—Harry Golden.

• • •

THE DETHRONGING OF THE THRONGS

ANYONE who regularly reads a newspaper is familiar with the social life of the Throngs. They are always with us—New Year's Eve they pack nightclubs, Easter they attend church and parade, Memorial Day, the Fourth of July, and Labor Day they jam the parkways, Thanksgiving they overtax public transportation facilities and at Christmas they're back in church again. They're also terribly active all

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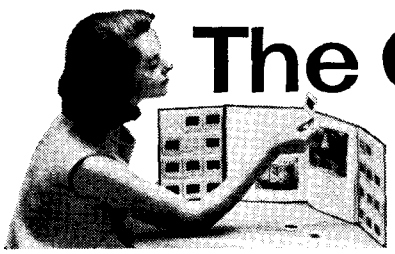

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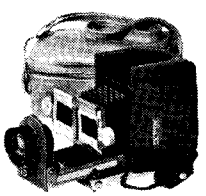

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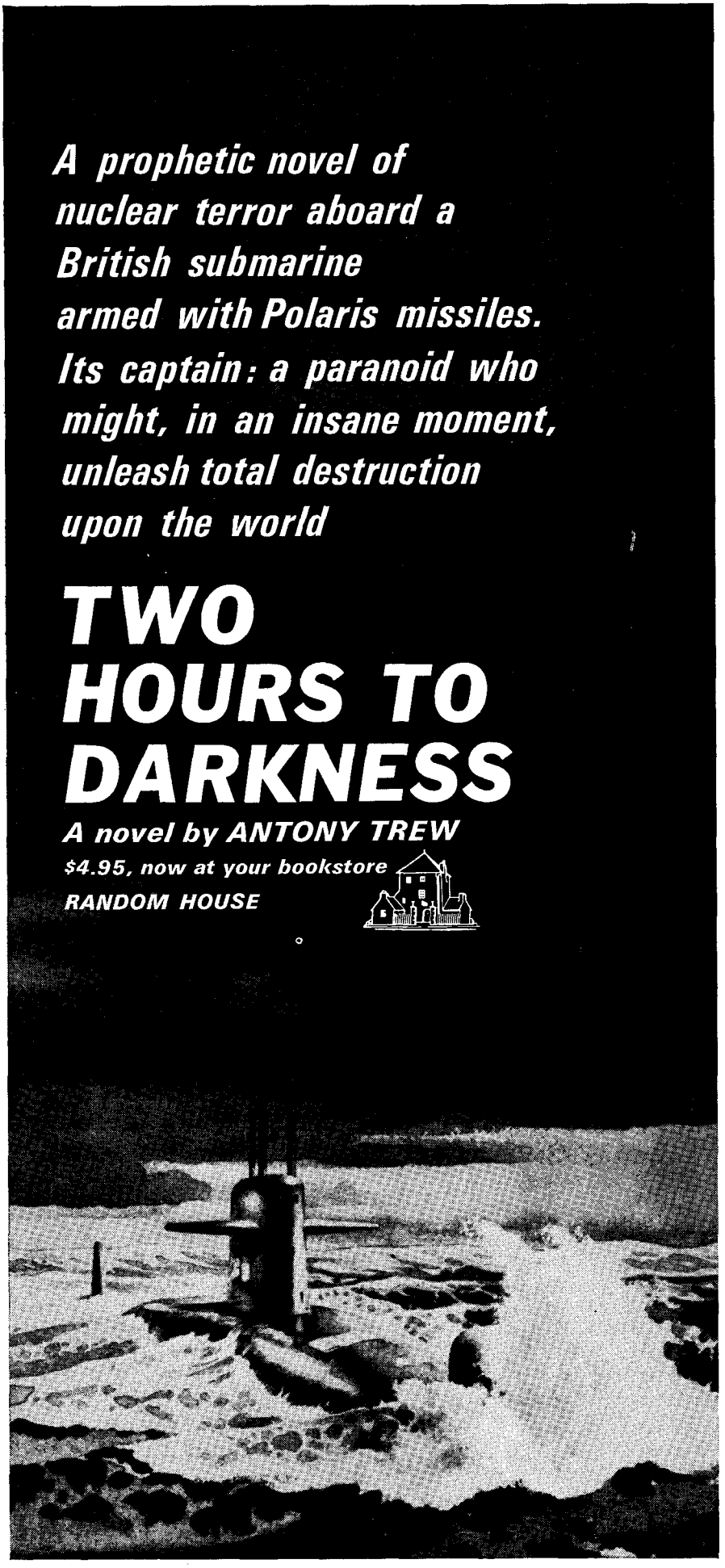


summer going to Europe, seeing their children off to camp, touring the National Parks and crowding beaches on very hot days. They slacken off somewhat in winter, but they do ski, catch cold, and cruise the Caribbean. They also welcome all celebrities, vote, fill hotels to capacity in heavy snowstorms, are displaced by floods and flee approaching hurricanes. Busy busy busy.

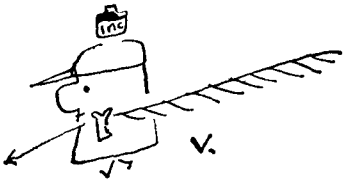
This sort of life holds no appeal for me, and I don't want to be accused of jealousy simply because the press doesn't cover my activities at the laundromat (EHF Causes Flood at Opening of Wash-O-Rama), supermarket (EHF Jams Aisles at Food-O-Rama), my winter affairs (EHF Flees Home as Furnace Balks), or my summer activities (EHF Too Warm in Heat Wave). I don't consider any of these happenings front-page news, with the exception perhaps of the flood in the laundromat—that situation came close to getting out of hand.

Jealousy aside, I have begun to wonder why the Throngs always make the front pages. I find them dullards, they always do the same things, year after year, and I expect it's getting harder and harder for them to keep their name in the papers. (I assume they must have a very expensive public relations firm, and perhaps payola or blackmailola is involved.) Anyway, in my opinion it's time they get out of that eternal rut they're in and try something different for a change.

I would like to see them start out by becoming just mildly eccentric—they might pack the nightclubs on January 4, see their children off to camp at Easter, overtax the transportation facilities on June 11, jam the parkways on October 2, and perhaps flee a flood on December 23. Next, they advance from mild eccentricity to wild abandon—"Throngs Attend Nudist Seminar," "Throngs Accused in Wife-Swapping Parties," "Noisy Throngs Enrage Neighbors," "Throngs Accused of Delinquency," and the like.

In the third and final step they go completely to pot—"Arrest Throngs Again for Public Drunkenness," "Sensational Counter-Claims in Throng Divorce Suit," "Throngs Storm Fort Knox," "Judge Sentences Throngs to Life Imprisonment," all of this to be ended once and forever by a book written by Max Lerner, Norman Vincent Peale, and Dr. Theodor Reik, "The Throngs—A Study in Depth."

—Elizabeth Hull Froman.



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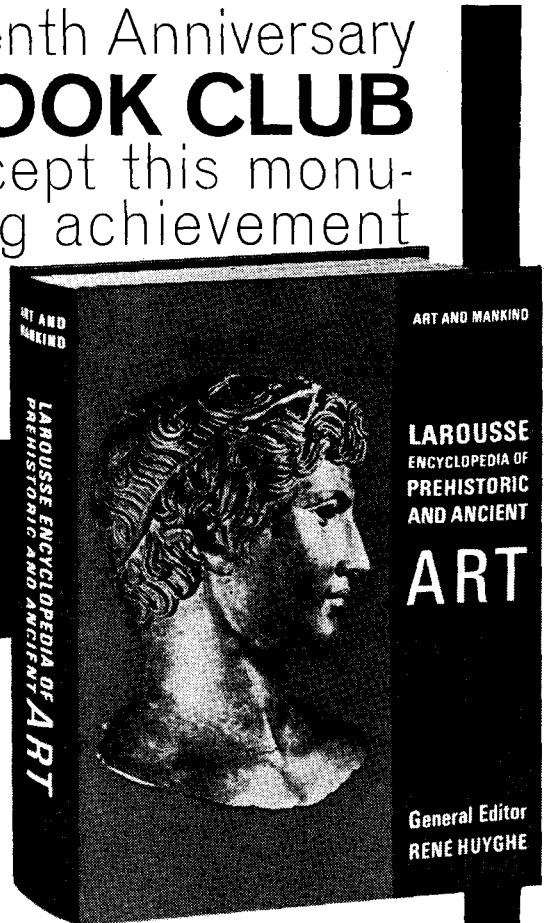

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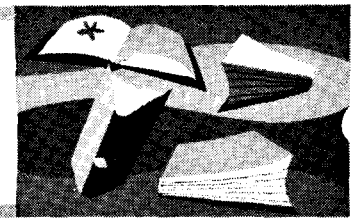
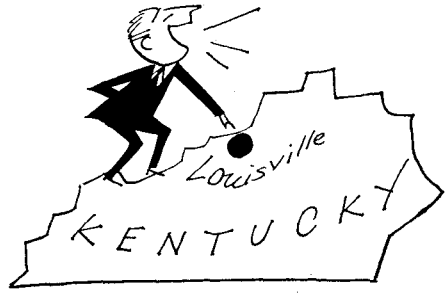


IT'S GETTING SO I watch the papers carefully for the latest news from Louisville, Kentucky. Just a few weeks ago I read an Associated Press dispatch from that city reporting what had happened in the fourth grade. The teacher,



discussing heroines from history, asked the class if it knew who Joan of Arc was.

"I think," said a voice from the rear, "she was Noah's wife."

The other day I was scanning some newspaper or other and, sure enough, there was another stop-the-press item from the AP, datelined Louisville:

"While waiting for a bus, John Lukemeier spotted a neighbor whose daughter had just married.

" 'Well,' commented, Lukemeier, 'I see you've lost a daughter.'

" 'Yes' the neighbor replied, 'but I've gained a bathroom.' "

My admiration grew for the reporters who were giving Louisville such thorough coverage. I began to study all publications for other news of the city. So far I haven't seen any more jokes, but what's worse I haven't been able to find out anything else either. In other words, nothing is happening in Louisville except the populace cracking wise. No reports of marriages, elections, floods, or strikes. Just not funny enough, I guess.

WHEN THE Murdock Pembertons of New York stayed in Paris one summer ten years ago, they had a nice room in a little hotel. There was a huge closet but no hooks for hanging anything in it. They went to a nearby notion shop and got a dozen screw hooks. Ten of these Pemberton attached to the underside of a shelf. With the two left over he made a tie rack on the inside of the closet door. He took a fancy ribbon from a bon voyage gift and slung it between the two hooks.

This past summer the Pembertons, out of sentiment, stayed in the same hotel. It was under new management but otherwise seemed unchanged. When they entered their room they wondered if it was the same one they'd had in 1952.

"I don't think it is," Pemberton said.

"Look in the closet," she said.

He opened it. There were the ten hooks under the shelf, the two hooks on the back of the door, and the same ribbon tied between them.

ON THE LAST FRIDAY of December I went to Woodstock, Connecticut, to attend the annual meeting of the Woodstock Theft Detecting Society. It lasted almost all day, what with the morning business session, the dinner, and the afternoon program. The Senexet Grange Hall rang with gaiety or solemnity as members elected officers, appropriated money, and discussed stationery, among other things.

The Society, of which there are 200 members, meets but once a year. It has met regularly since June 5, 1793, wher

it was founded by some local men in the home of Elijah Williams, with the express purpose of "detecting those who may steal horses or other property." According to the original charter, "nine persons will be chosen as pursuers who shall furnish themselves with able horses and shall pursue on the shortest notice all persons guilty of theft by stealing the property of any member."

A disturbing problem for the Society is the lack of proof that in its 169 years any pursuers have caught any thieves. Last year some publicity was given to this, and letters came from as far as Vancouver, people asking how and why this record stands. I searched the minutes of many eighteenth- and nineteenth-century meetings and found references to the treasurer paying pursuers five or ten dollars to pursue, but no mention of any successful theft detection.

However, at the meeting I attended,

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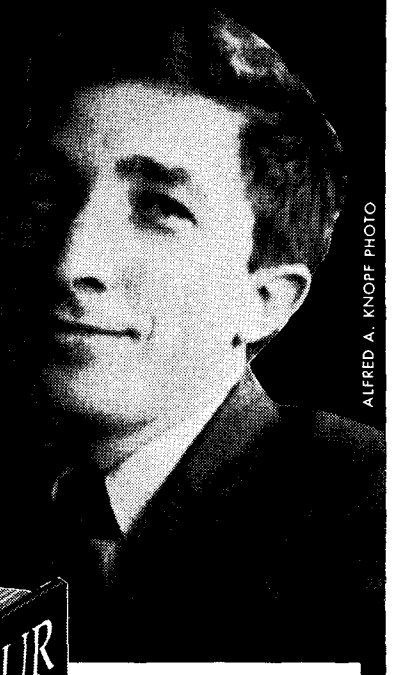

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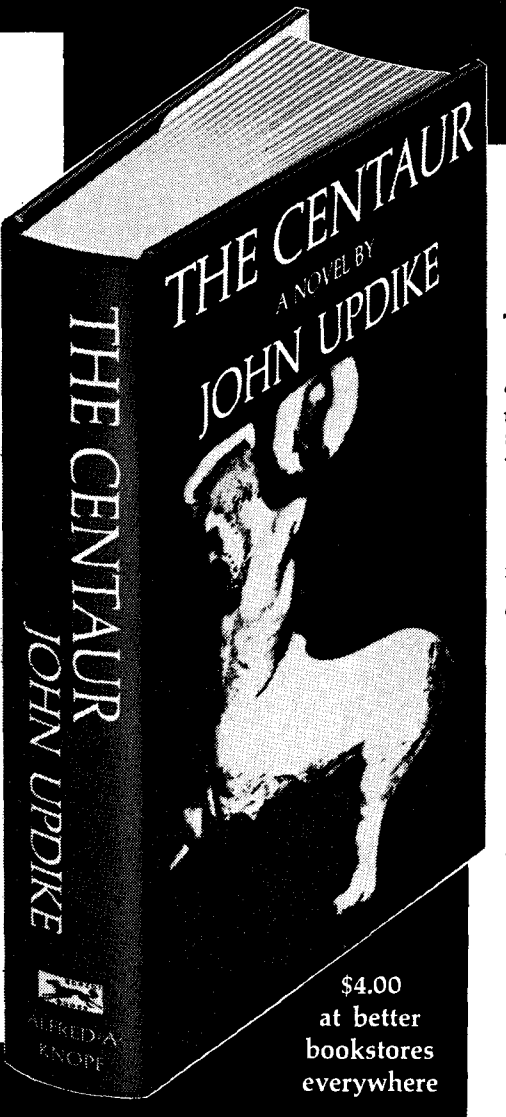

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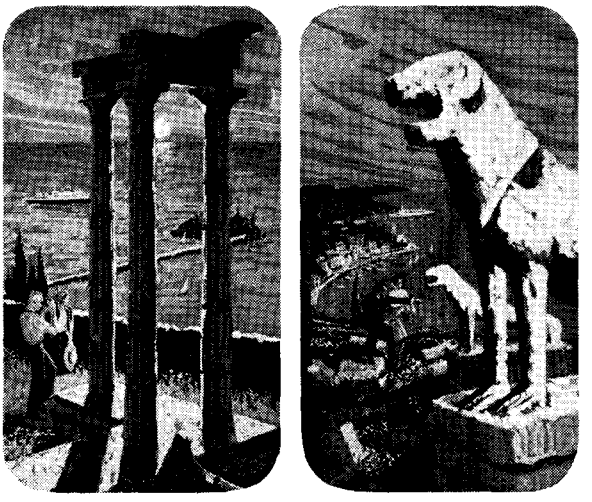

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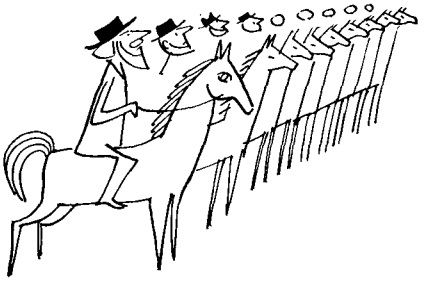
it was pointed out that General Sam McClellan of Revolutionary War fame was a pursuer, and it seems unlikely that he would return empty-handed. Another interesting feature is that in 1825 the State Legislature granted a charter to the Society which explicitly says its activities shall be "confined to detection and pursuit of those who have stolen . . . property. . . ."

This bothers some members, for the pursuers (of which there are now twelve) have not furnished themselves with able horses for many years. And the Woodstock Theft Detecting Society



has behaved like a historical society and a social organization for a long time. If any horses are stolen this year, the pursuers will telephone the state police.

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►A fellow in Darien, Connecticut, was asked to join the amateur symphony group, but declined. He didn't want to get his head caught in the status cymbals.

—Jerome Beatty, Jr.

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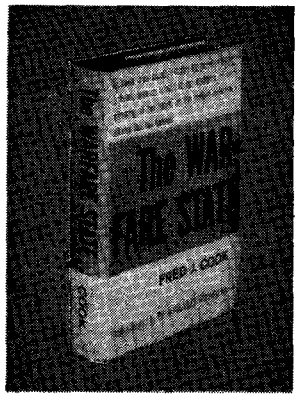

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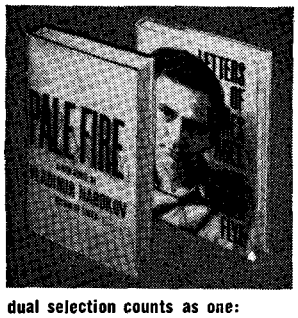

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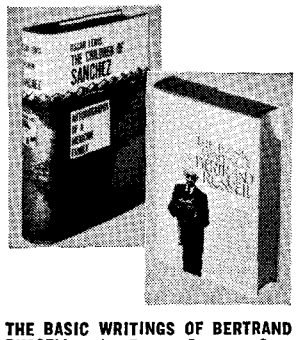

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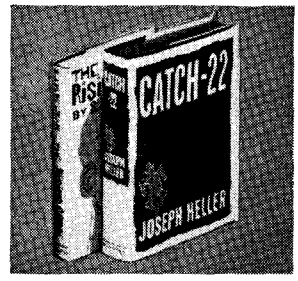

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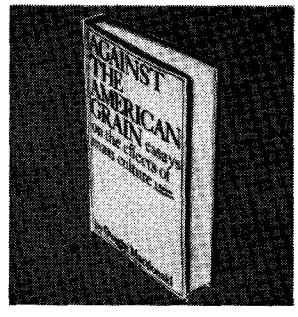

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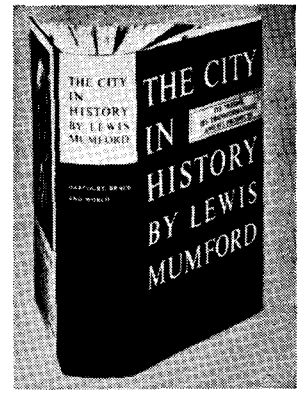

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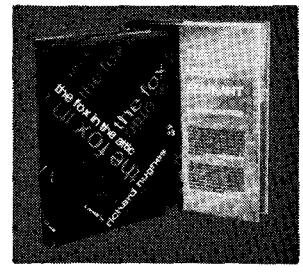

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Saturday Review
FEBRUARY 16, 1963

SOLVING THE INHUMAN EQUATION

Can Arms Control End the Population Crisis?

The author of this article, fifth in SR's continuing symposium on the problems and promises of a warless world, is a lawyer who initiated the famous Plattsburg Movement in 1915-17 and the Selective Service Act in 1940, and who in 1958 wrote, with Louis B. Sohn, the monumental "World Peace Through World Law."

By GRENVILLE CLARK

THE arms race and world population growth, the two gravest crises of our times, are often viewed as separate problems with separate solutions. This, I believe, is a serious mistake. Specifically, there is good evidence for believing that the prevention of undue population growth is probably impossible until disarmament is achieved. There is also good evidence for believing that disarmament could pave the way for effective population control within a few decades.

I remind the reader that the underlying assumptions of the symposium of which this article is a part include not only the achievement of complete disarmament in the sense that all national arms are reduced to the level of such police forces as are essential for internal order only, but also the establishment of a strong world police force and a "peace-keeping and dispute-settling system" with the necessary "minimal amount of law and organization" to prevent any "large-scale organized armed conflict" between nations. What is assumed, in short, is universal and complete national disarmament *together with* an effective system of world law in the limited field of war prevention.

Moreover, for the purposes of this particular discussion. I ask the reader to accept several other assumptions: 1) that total national disarmament and the establishment of the world institutions necessary thereto will have been achieved by the end of 1982; 2) that during the twenty years 1963-82 the 1963 world population of about 3.1 billion will increase to about 4.4 billion; 3) that of this estimated 1982 population nearly 60 per cent, or about 2.6 billion persons, will be living in dire poverty; and 4) that by 1982 there will have been established a world development authority and a reliable world revenue system whereby some $60 billion per annum will be available to alleviate the economic condition of the most impoverished areas of the world. These assumptions are, I believe, soundly based on a careful appraisal of probable developments in the next twenty years.

For such an appraisal, one should first consider the seventeen-year period 1946-62 after World War II—a period often regarded as one of failure and frustration because of the many protracted and sterile efforts toward disarmament. But while the failures and frustrations cannot be denied, these years should also be regarded as a period of necessary adjustment and gestation during which the people of the world began to understand that world order will require not only disarmament, but also the same kind of legislative, executive, and judicial institutions on a world scale as experience has shown to be necessary for the maintenance of internal order in local communities and within nations.

Reflecting this gradual enlightenment, the year 1961 included the March 17 statement of all the Prime Ministers of the British Commonwealth calling for "total world-wide disarmament" and for a "substantial and adequately armed" world police force; the McCloy-Zorin agreement of September 20, whereby the objective of "general and complete" disarmament was unequivocally accepted by the two superpowers; and President Kennedy's United Nations speech of September 25, in which he summoned the world to a "peace race" based upon total national disarmament.

DESPITE this progress and the convening of the seventeen-nation disarmament conference in March 1962, I can see little likelihood of any comprehensive agreement in the near future. During 1963-65, it seems clear that the mutual suspicions of East and West will remain too deep and their positions too far apart to justify the hope that the principal powers will actually reach an agreement for total disarmament within these years.

On the other hand, the chances for the making and ratification of such an agreement toward the end of the ensuing seven-year period, 1966-72, would

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seem to be more than even, for the reason that several important influences for genuine peace are likely to converge at that time, and together constitute a force sufficient to sweep aside the formidable obstacles which have so far blocked the way.

Paramount among these influences will be, I judge, a steadily mounting concern about the consequences of nuclear war. We must remember that until a disarmament agreement comes into actual operation, both the risks and the inexorable demands of the arms race will certainly continue and may even increase. As predicted by Secretary of State Rusk in March 1962, the already vast nuclear power of the two sides will probably double by the end of 1965. In the absence of a disarmament agreement, this destructive power would presumably double again within a few years thereafter, while at the same time armament costs would probably increase still further. In these circumstances, is it not reasonable to suppose that the pressure on all governments to reach a disarmament agreement will almost certainly intensify from year to year? Simultaneously, through expanded public education and discussion, there should develop a far better informed public opinion in many nations with respect to the kind of world organization required for the achievement and maintenance of disarmament; and, beyond this, there should develop a wider understanding of the truth that the elimination of national armaments is indispensable to a solution of the population problem. It is through this combination of greater concern with a better comprehension of the remedy that we may reasonably expect the long-sought disarmament agreement—not at some indefinitely remote date, but by the end of 1972.

SUCH an agreement having once been reached and ratified, the process of actual disarmament should require no more than ten years, in which case the goal of a disarmed world subject to enforceable world law in the limited field of war prevention would be realized by the end of 1982.

During this twenty-year period through 1982, it is safe to predict that the population problem will become steadily more acute. This seems inevitable because of two determining factors: 1) that as of 1963 the rate of population growth in the poverty-stricken regions of the world exceeds 2 per cent per annum; and 2) that so long as large expenditures on armaments continue, it will be impracticable to furnish economic aid to these "have-not" areas on a scale sufficient to bring about any important improvement in their living standards and thus to provide the environment and motivation for any substantial reduction in population growth.

In this connection, it should always be remembered that the population problem is almost entirely concentrated in the poorest areas of the world. Various large countries (including the United States, Canada, and Australia) could doubtless maintain at a good standard of living populations even four times as large as those of 1963; whereas, even a doubling to 900 million of the population of India or to 1,300 million of that of China might well cancel out the benefits of outside aid even on a massive scale. Accordingly, the real problem is not to prevent even a considerable population increase of the world as a whole, but rather to hold to a minimum any increases in areas which are already poverty-stricken.

It may be suggested that the development of inexpensive contraceptive pills or other simple means of family limitation will alone suffice to solve this problem. Unfortunately, however, any such hope leaves out of account the all-important factor of motivation for the use of such remedies. The estimated 2.6 billion impoverished and largely illiterate people who in 1982 will probably still have an average annual per capita income of less than $150 would have little incentive to make use of even the simplest and cheapest birth control techniques. For experience shows that even when the means for family limitation are readily available, they are not fully taken advantage of by people living in extreme poverty who can see no hope for any real improvement in the lot of themselves and their descendents. It seems clear, therefore, that, along with new and inexpensive techniques for birth control, a drastic improvement in the living standards of the impoverished areas is necessary—*both* being indispensable for any substantial reduction in population growth.

Assuming, then, that a great improvement in the living standards of the poorer nations is essential for population control, the next thing to realize is that the flow of aid from the industrialized nations is now on a scale utterly inadequate for this end.

A liberal estimate of total economic aid in 1963 to all the low-income areas of the world is $10 billion from all sources—governmental, United Nations, and private. If we then assume that the 1963 population of all the low-income areas is about 1.8 billion persons, the estimated total aid would provide less than $6 per capita.

Taking India as a concrete example, total outside aid in 1963 may be estimated at $2.2 billion, which, when applied to India's population of about 450 million, is equal to about $5 per capita, or $25 per annum for a family of five.

Can anyone reasonably suppose that aid on this restricted scale can be effective to bring about the drastic improvement in living standards necessary to alleviate the vast disparities between the "have" and "have-not" people and to furnish sufficient motivation for adequate population control?

Accordingly, it seems apparent that, however valuable present efforts may be as a manifestation of good will and as a means of gaining experience, the scale must be radically increased in order to accomplish only what is barely necessary to make any real impression on the living standards of most of the countries involved.

IN contrast to the estimated total aid of only $10 billion in 1963, the $60 billion per annum program, which is assumed for the period after total disarmament, may seem very large. But a brief consideration will, I believe, show that this amount will be little enough to meet the need.

Let it be remembered that this task calls for a radical and reasonably fast improvement of the living standards of no less than 2.6 billion persons presumed to be living in 1982 under conditions of dire poverty. Thus the assumed $60 billion in annual aid is seen to amount to only $23 per capita to cover the immense programs in education, transportation, industrialization, agriculture, housing, health, and so forth which could alone suffice to have any real effect upon living standards within a reasonable time.

By contrast, it should be recalled that the remarkable results achieved in Israel during the 1948-62 period have been aided by an inflow of outside capital equal to at least $100 per capita per annum, or more than four times as much per capita as would be available after 1982 from an annual inflow of $60 billion to all the low-income areas.

And finally, let it be emphasized that this program would take effect only after the burden of national armaments had been entirely lifted, in an amount which in 1963 already comes to $120 billion and will probably increase to $140 billion per annum by the time a disarmament agreement actually comes into force. Accordingly, the new program would involve no additional tax burden. On the contrary, even assuming that as much as $15 billion per annum would be needed for the world

(*Continued on page* 18)

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GRENVILLE CLARK AT EIGHTY: In November Grenville Clark, co-framer of the world's most comprehensive draft treaty under which the nations could safely disarm and create a viable world under law, turned eighty. Messages came from all over the globe saluting the man who had worked since 1915 to strengthen the Free World's defenses and economy and, since the beginning of the Atomic Age, to prepare a working draft of a World Constitution. More than one tribute characterized Grenville Clark as the Thomas Jefferson of our time.

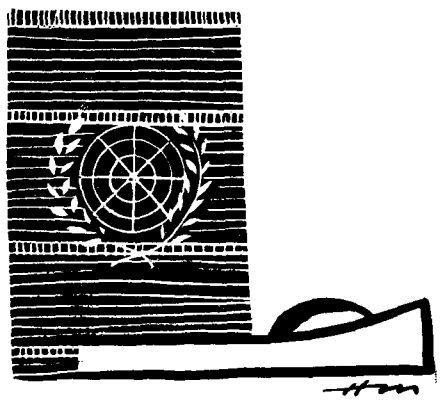
But to Grenville Clark personal recognition has never been important. What counts more to him, as he enters his eighties, is the fact that at last people in many countries are beginning to take the notion of world law seriously.

As 1963 unfolds, for the first time in the history of American education, courses and seminars on world law and how to use it to create a genuine peace will be given in U.S. colleges and graduate schools, including Harvard, New York University, Princeton, Rutgers Law School, and the University of Colorado. Twelve thousand high school social studies teachers will be studying the recently published fifty-page World Law section in the official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies. Groups composed of business, professional, and civic leaders will hold seminars in many cities.

The Federation of American Scientists will implement a resolution passed last December urging its 2,600 members to serve as seminar leaders and encourage the adoption of world law study programs in their universities. The New Hampshire Bar Association will conduct a state-wide high school essay contest on world peace through world law. World law study courses will also be held in many foreign universities. In Japan, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and Puerto Rico, such courses are already under way. By fall Dr. Arturo Orzthabal Quintana of Puerto Rico's Department of Education hopes other Latin American universities will start the courses. His current visit to six of them has this as its sole goal.

Even some leading Russians are now openly discussing the role of world law in ending the arms race and are publishing articles about it. Although they, like many individuals in the U.S., are not in complete agreement with some important features of the Clark-Sohn plan, Grenville Clark is not disturbed. As long as enough people in enough countries are taking the problem of a viable peace seriously enough to study about it, argue about it, and write about it, he is confident that an acceptable solution will emerge.

"For a long time," said Clark some months ago, "I've been thinking and saying that the world situation must get a good deal worse before enough people will become sufficiently concerned to bring sufficient pressure upon their respective governments. I think the world situation resembles that of a very ill patient whose ailment has been clearly diagnosed as requiring a radical operation, but who is so obstinate and lacking in intelligence that he drifts along in a continued refusal to heed his



doctor's advice. In that situation, only a series of really serious attacks will gradually heighten the patient's concern until he finally says: 'Go ahead, doctor. Do what is necessary.' My idea is that the poor old world is very much in that position but is gradually being shaken out of its obstinate resistance to the only real remedy, and with a few more shocks will finally get around to accepting what is needed."

Thus, nineteen months ago, with the moral and financial help of several of Clark's friends, including Earl Osborne, Governor Herbert Lehman, Dr. Paul Dudley White, and Howard C. Petersen, the Fund for Education Concerning World Peace Through World Law was established to supply information about this remedy. The Fund proposed to serve as catalyst in bringing about world-wide, informed discussion on the central problem of our time, leading, it was hoped, to an international consensus. Harry Hollins III, a Wall Street broker and long-time friend of Clark's, took indefinite leave to serve as the Fund's manager.

To some the proposition appeared visionary and impractical. But not to Hollins, the businessman. To him, the establishment of workable peace-keeping machinery was essential to the health and growth of national and world economies. Another businessman with like views, Edward H. McVitty, joined him at the Fund's small office provided by the Institute for International Order. During the weeks and months of their early efforts, guided and inspired by the almost daily telephone calls from Clark at his Dublin, New Hampshire, farmhouse, the two men progressed slowly. They finally managed to get a pilot course going at Rutgers late in 1961. At the end of the trial run, the professor, Saul Mendlovitz, apathetic about it at first, became a zealous member of the team.

The Fund then commissioned Mendlovitz to prepare an 858-page discussion manual synopsizing all relevant writings, plans, studies, and documents ranging all the way from Herman Kahn to Eric Fromm. Entitled "Legal and Political Problems of World Order," it was designed to be studied with the Clark-Sohn plan, utilizing the latter as a teaching model. These two works comprise the basic text materials for college courses.

Clark now hopes that the academic ferment over the World Peace Through World Law study program will spread into industrial and professional circles. Already over fifty non-academic groups are holding seminars around the country. If business and industry work up sufficient concern and steam to place even a fraction of their vast research resources to work solving the economic problems involved in the transition from an arms to a peacetime economy, and finding ways to divert the billions thus released into global development—this would represent the finest birthday tribute of all to Grenville Clark. Let's hope it happens before he turns ninety.

—Mary Kersey Harvey.

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police force and the various functions of the world organization other than the $60 billion for aid to the low-income areas, the total new expenditure would come to no more than $75 billion per annum or $45-$65 billion *less* than the armament costs from which the nations would have been relieved.

As applied to the United States, the saving would be perhaps $30 billion per annum resulting from the elimination of a prospective annual armaments cost of $60 billion partially offset by, say, $3 billion for internal police forces and, say, $27 billion as our share of the assumed $75 billion annual budget of the world organization. It might or might not be that this saving of $30 billion per annum would be reflected in a reduction of taxation; but, in any event, it would represent a true saving in that this amount would be released either for tax reduction or for badly needed internal uses.

The conclusions to be drawn from the foregoing review, therefore, are: first, that $60 billion per annum for aid to the world's impoverished areas will be no more than the minimum needed to achieve the rise in living standards which is indispensable to any important reduction in population growth; and second, that, having in mind the immense savings from total national disarmament, this expense can be borne without difficulty by the industrialized nations.

I turn now to the question of what could be accomplished *after* the coming into force of an agreement for general and complete disarmament. Assuming an agreement for general and complete disarmament by the end of 1972, the completion of the disarmament process by the end of 1982, and then a large and sustained program of economic aid to the poorest nations of the world, what could reasonably be expected during the sixty years thereafter by way of population control?

It should be emphasized that the first decade following the coming into force of the disarmament agreement would necessarily be a period mainly of planning and preparation. During these ten years, 1973-82, the new institutions of the world organization would be set up; and, after the year or two required for this purpose, there would follow the agreed-upon process of total disarmament by each and every nation, resulting by 1982 in a disarmed world, save only for a strong world police force and certain internal police strictly limited in number and very lightly armed.

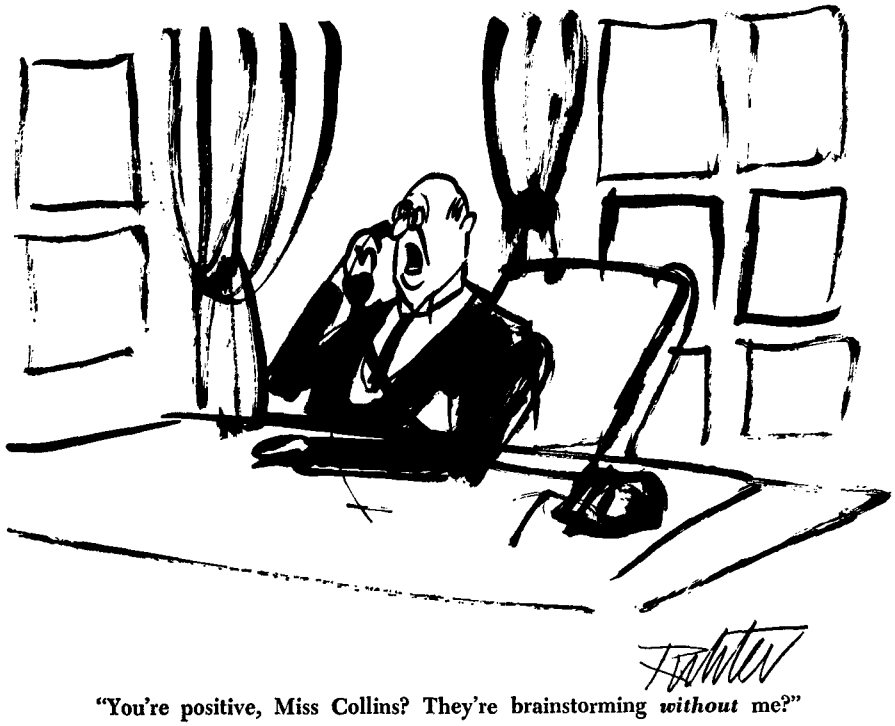
Parallel with this process, the new legislative, executive, judicial, and quasi-judicial agencies, including the world development authority and the world revenue system, would have begun to function, and the work of improving the economic condition of the impoverished regions would at last be under way with machinery and resources fairly adequate to the task.

Without doubt, this first decade would also be devoted to the professional and technical training of indigenous personnel on a great scale. Such a training program would be a clear necessity in order to provide at least 3,000,000 young men and women (only one to every 866 of the populations in need) to be teachers, doctors, engineers, architects and builders, lawyers, judges, and administrators in the low-income areas, containing the assumed 2.6 billion persons for whom aid could now begin to flow on a scale never before remotely possible. Such training would be carried out in part by sending during the assumed preparatory decade as many as 1.5 million carefully chosen young people to Western educational institutions, and also by enlarging or creating many new professional and technical schools and colleges in the various underdeveloped countries. In this way, trained indigenous personnel would be ready to administer the gradually growing funds.

Parallel also with actual disarmament and this training program, comprehensive planning would doubtless proceed as to the ways and means of making use of the new resources and skills so that, by the time the disarmament process was completed and the assumed $60 billion per annum became available, the foundations would have been laid for well-prepared and adequately staffed programs.

DURING the preparatory period just mentioned, actual progress in the improvement of living standards would necessarily be rather slight, since, although diminishing year by year, a considerable burden of armament expense would still exist. For example, if we assume that the process of actual disarmament gets under way in 1973 on the basis of a 10 per cent reduction per annum in each year through 1982, the assumed armament expense of $140 billion would steadily decrease, thereby making practicable the allotment of corresponding amounts for the use of the world organization. It might well be that all of this saving would not be placed at the disposal of the world organization, but it is reasonable to suppose that, say, $10 billion would be available for the world development authority during each of the first several years of actual disarmament, and that, as the process continued, these amounts would increase to $15 billion, $30 billion, and $50 billion per annum as the disarmament process drew toward its end. Thus, while the practical effect upon living standards and consequently upon population growth might be small during this first decade, the basis would have been laid for tremendous accomplishment in the period following total disarmament.

It is in this subsequent period, with the preparatory work done and with the assumed infusion into the low-income areas of $60 billion per annum, that definite and reasonably prompt



"You're positive, Miss Collins? They're brainstorming *without* me?"

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progress could confidently be expected. For, although our assumed $60 billion per annum would provide outside aid of only about $23 per capita per annum, this would be supplemented by indigenous capital in accordance with the varying capacities of the various nations. In some instances this contribution would necessarily be small, but it would in all cases be a factor of some consequence, and in certain instances might amount to as much as the aid provided through the world development authority.

If, for example, we assume that the average local and national contributions amounted to $12 per capita per annum in respect of 2.6 billion people, the total annual expenditure for the great campaign of economic and social betterment would be financed by an annual expenditure of $35 per capita, or $91 billion per annum. In these circumstances, who can doubt that even in the first twenty years after the completion of the disarmament process there would be so great an improvement in the standard of living of the impoverished peoples as to effect an important alteration in their outlook upon life and in their motivation in respect of family limitation?

Still better results in population control should follow in the period of, say, four decades, 2003-2042, in consequence of the combination of steadily improving living standards and the probable advances in birth control methods, which would by that time put them within reach of even the poorest people.

As a reasonable prognosis, I suggest that in this forty-year period population growth in the low-income areas could be gradually reduced to no more than 1.5 per cent per annum and world population growth to less than 1 per cent per annum. If so, the total world population in 2043 might not exceed about 8.5 billion rather than the 11.7 billion to which it would increase if, during the entire eighty years from 1963-2042, population growth continued at the 1.7 per cent rate of the 1946-62 period.

This supposition that, as a result of general and complete disarmament and massive economic aid to the most needy areas, the world population can be held to less than 9 billion as of 2043 will doubtless be thought too optimistic by some demographers. Among other objections, the fact may be cited that industrialization and rising living standards do not always, at least in the short run, bring about reduced population growth; and the rapid increases of population in Britain and Japan during their industrial revolutions may

be cited. I suggest, however, that the conditions in the world's most impoverished regions are now very different in that, while Japan and Britain were not anxious in the nineteenth century to limit their populations and even welcomed increased numbers, such countries as China, India, Pakistan, and Egypt will by 1973 be almost desperately concerned to prevent further increases and will willingly cooperate to that end. If so, it seems altogether probable that the predicted results would promptly follow the assumed large inflow of aid which would be possible in a disarmed world.

To those accustomed to the 3.1 billion world population of 1963 (not to speak of those who recall the world of 1920 with only about 2 billion people), a world with a population of 8.5 billion may seem a crowded planet indeed. Yet with the aid of modern science, it need not be intolerably crowded and should, in fact, be a better world in having eliminated the worst extremes of poverty and hardship which so badly mar our boasted civilization of 1963.

In any event, the restriction of population growth within these limits is in all likelihood the best that can be done (without the unwanted help of nuclear war or widespread famine and disease); and the all-important point to be grasped is that even this degree of population control will be dependent upon the achievement of total disarmament not later than 1982.

By general consent, the two paramount problems of our time, which in some way affect all the people of the world, are the problem of preventing nuclear war and the problem of population control. It is idle to argue as to which of these problems is the more important, since the solution of *both* is essential to a satisfactory future for the human race.

What I have sought to demonstrate is that the two problems are closely interrelated, especially in the respect that population control is dependent upon disarmament, so as to make practicable the provision of sufficient aid from the industrialized nations to bring about so great an improvement in the living standards of the impoverished areas as to create among their people the necessary motivation for family limitation.

In other words, I conclude that, without total disarmament, population control would be impracticable and the world would have to reconcile itself to all the evils which would certainly follow from excessive and hungry populations in large portions of the globe; while, on the other hand, the realization of total disarmament would open the way to a tremendous improvement in living standards and the consequent stabilization of population within a relatively few years.

It follows that those who strive for peace and those who strive for population control should join hands in a united effort for the preservation and welfare of mankind.

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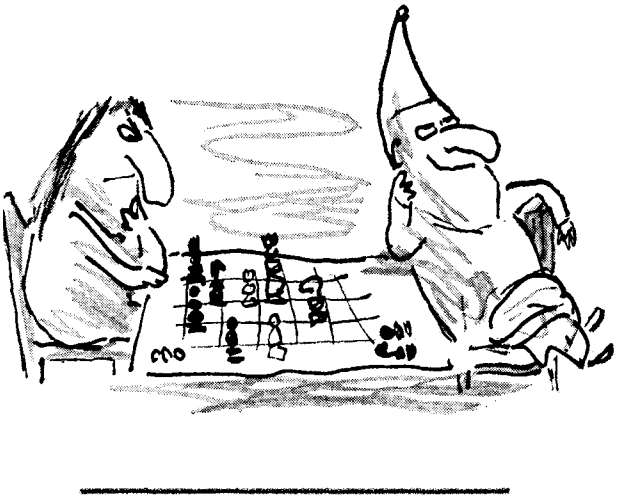
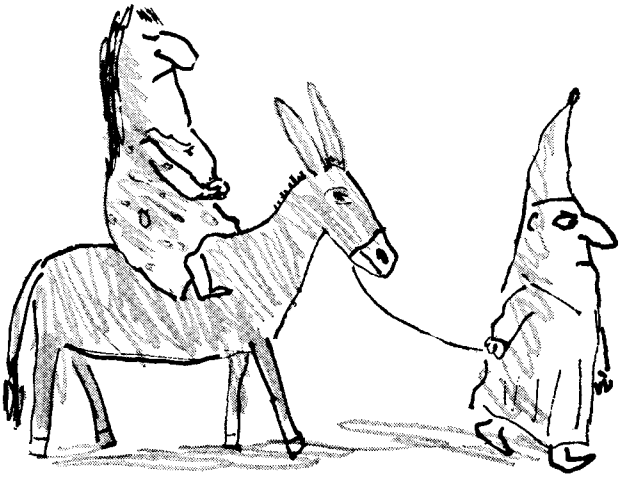
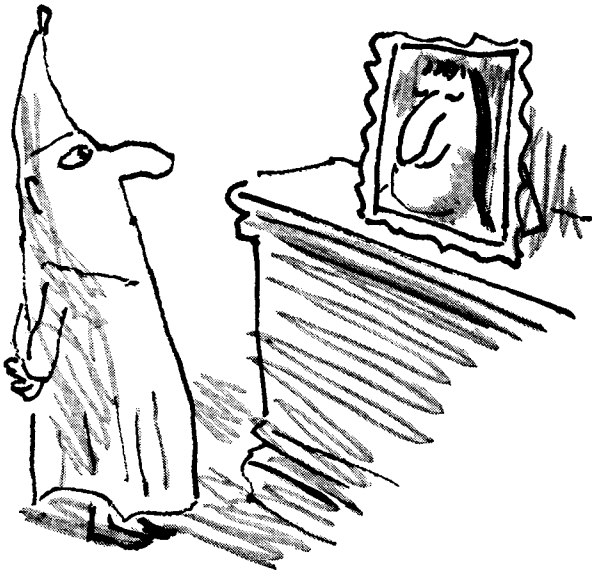




THE X-RAY PEN: As the inventor of what have been called "symbolic drawings," William Steig has for more than two decades delighted those who like their rationality spiced with a soupçon of lunacy, and has evoked uneasy laughs from those who recognize themselves among his harassed characters (one of the best known of which is a man sitting gloomily in a packing crate over the caption "People Are No Damn Good"). The drawings on these pages, taken from the "Punch and Judy: Their Later Years" section of his forthcoming book, "Continuous Performance" (to be published next month by Duell, Sloan & Pearce), suggest why one observer has said of Steig's work: "Here, with or without the grace of God, are all of us X-rayed."



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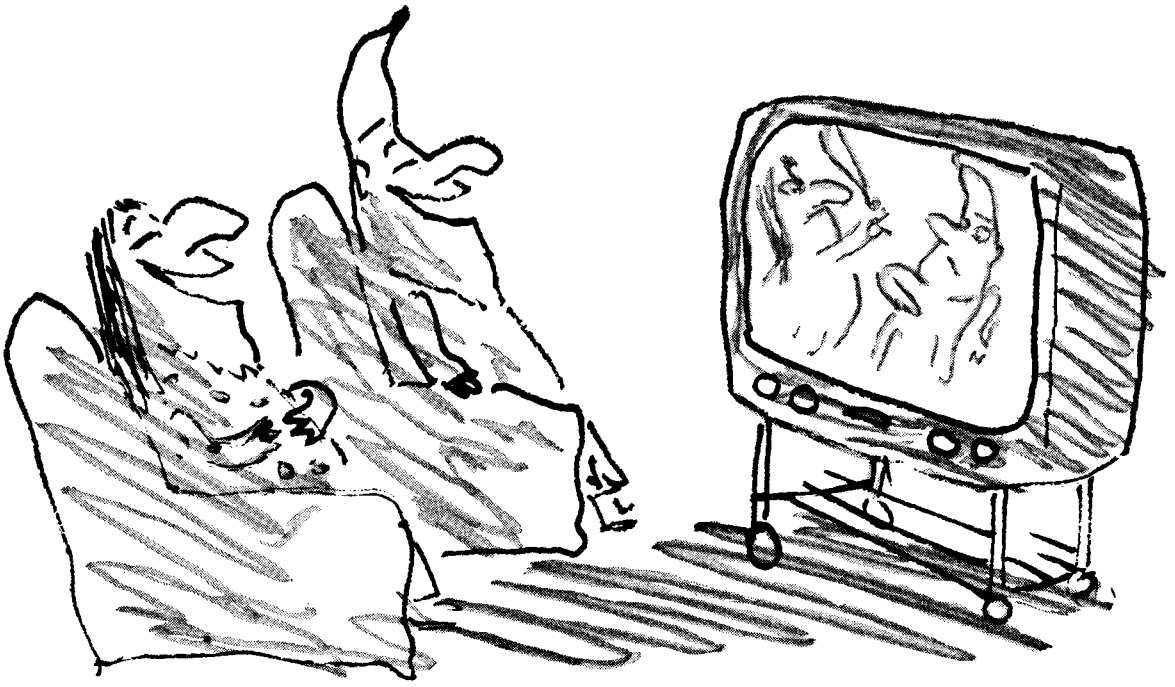

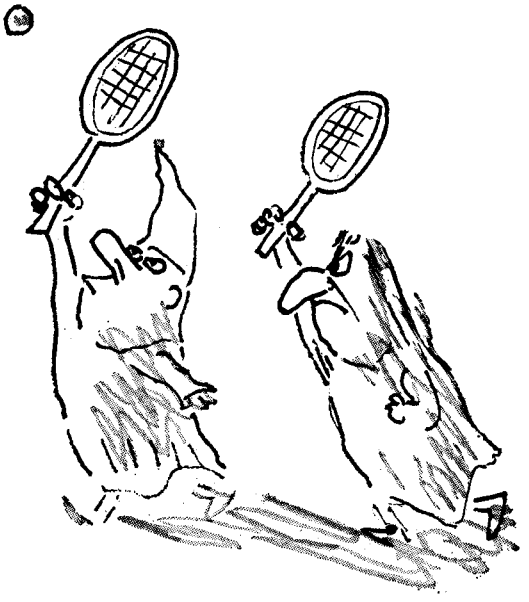

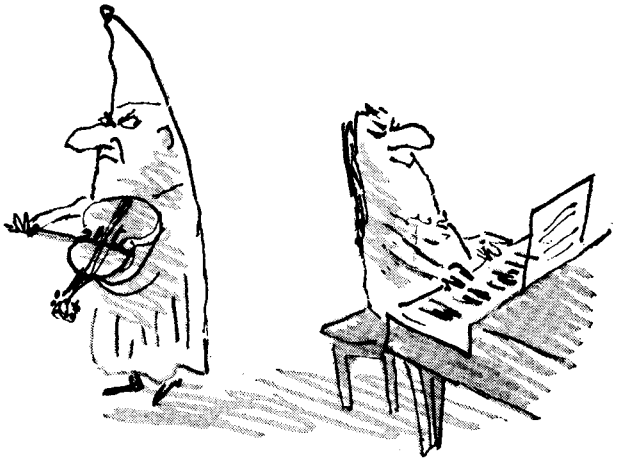

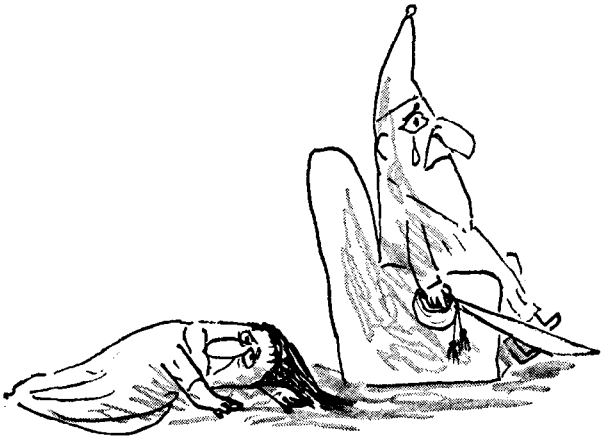

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ROBERT LEWIS SHAYON
JOHN T. WINTERICH

Report on the Ladies

IN WARSAW, I was the privileged recipient of the attentions of some three dozen of the loveliest ladies I have encountered anywhere in the world. They met me at the railroad station. (For days a grisly nightmare of fog had lain like bulky adhesive on the airport runways.) And that night the lovely ladies made me their guest at a regal banquet in the city's leading hotel.

Ordinarily, this page is not devoted to a detailed recital of the editor's social calendar. But there was something special about this occasion that has dissipated the editor's reluctance on this score. For the lovely ladies were members of a group who had received hospitality in the homes of many *SR* readers. They had come to the United States for medical, surgical, and psychological care. Their illnesses and injuries had been inflicted at the Ravensbrueck concentration camp by Nazi doctors in the Second World War. The doctors were experimenting with new drugs and had used the Polish girls as involuntary guinea pigs. Broken glass, dirty rags, and other gangrene-producing materials had been inserted into the bones of the ladies, causing excessive infections in order to test new sulfanilimide drugs. Some of the girls, in sterilization experiments, lost their capacity to be mothers. All this came to light in the Nuremberg trials.

In any event, for twelve years after the end of the war, the Ravensbrueck Lapins, as they came to be known, were without adequate attention. Worse still, they were sick of spirit. While at Ravensbrueck they were sustained by the certainty that, if ever they got out of Ravensbrueck alive, the world would insist that full justice be put to work in their behalf. But almost everyone in Poland after the war had his own catalogue of horrors to look back upon or try to forget. And the rest of the world had its own preoccupations.

What cut most deeply was the fact that Germany, which had given pensions and compensation to other victims of Nazi brutality, had bypassed the claims of the Polish victims. Germany's position was that it had no official relationship with Poland; therefore, it had no way of dealing with Polish citizens.

This was the situation in 1957, when we learned about the Polish ladies through Miss Caroline Ferriday, who hoped that *SR* might mount a project in their behalf similar to the one just completed in behalf of the Hiroshima Maidens.

The Polish ladies were brought to the United States just before Christmas 1958. They stayed here almost a year. They were given medical and surgical treatment. They also traveled around the United States; they were received in the White House and on the floor of the U.S. Senate. And the West German government accepted our credentials as legal representative of the ladies. After prolonged negotiations, Germany last year agreed to give the ladies maximum compensation. These payments were received some months ago and were converted into Polish currency at a highly favorable rate, meaning that most of these women would not have to worry about economic privation for many years. Not that any amount of money could expunge the misery and brutality of the experiments. But it was good to see justice in operation; it was good to be free of money troubles.

THE evening I dined in Warsaw with the Polish ladies marked four years to the day since they arrived in the United States. I thought back to the way they looked when I accompanied them on the plane provided for their journey with the compliments and respects of Pan American World Airways. They were tremulous, emotionally and physically drained. But now I looked around the long banquet table; the ladies were attractive, confident, radiant, full of interest in life. They spoke of things they were doing and hoped to do. They glowed when they spoke of the occasional visits to Warsaw by Americans with whom they had lived in the United States. And they made it clear that they were grateful to be able to meet their own problems without turning elsewhere for help.

Many of them said they wished they might have the opportunity to reciprocate the hospitality they had received in America. "I now have an attractive flat in Sopot," said Zofia Kormanska-Kolanska, "and it would make me happy to have my American friends come to stay with me."

Osiczko Stanislawa said her illness "is no longer so terrifying because I am now in a position to treat it." As for her greatest single wish, it is that "I could arrange things so that happiness and joy would never leave my American friends."

The big news about Bogumila Dobrowolska-Jasiuk, spokesman and leader for the group, is that she has just married the man with whom she has been in love for more than ten years. She now has her own home for the first time in her life. She spoke of her joy in playing host in Warsaw to those American couples she met in the United States.

Joanna Szydlowska, an accomplished silversmith and designer of jewelry, said she had just bought a new kiln for enameling and was excited about its possibilities. She is busy preparing for a comprehensive exhibition of her work in Warsaw. She enjoys being in a position now to work for the love of it.

Stefania Sieklucka is also arranging for a scheduled showing of her work in a few months. She designs carpets and tapestries. She still needs systematic treatment for her heart trouble and

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rheumatism but she is in excellent spirits.

Pelagia Mackowska finds herself increasingly occupied in caring for members of her family who are seriously ill. She herself goes through periods when her old leg injuries flare up, but much of the time she says she feels quite well. She doesn't aspire to personal happiness because she isn't sure it is really attainable, but she invests most of her hopes in a durable peace for the world. She would also like to "master the English language but this, too, seems unattainable."

Dziunia Lapinska recently took a trip to the seashore and mountains and has gained four pounds. "My spirits are good and I find myself with a smile on my lips from time to time. I now have a flat. I do not work any more outside my home. I am able to do a great deal of reading for the first time. I am happy that the new position I am in enables me to help my famiy and many others close to my heart."

Similar sentiments were expressed by Zofia Sas-Hoszowska-Tietz. "What do I do now? I lead a quiet life. I have no children so I take care of children of poor parents of two families. I try not to waste a single penny, not spending it on superfluous things, for I know how hard our American friends had to work to get it for us. I still suffer from a bad heart and my old leg infection, but I am being treated by very good doctors."

Anna Zieleniec, who, like her husband, is an artist, is now looking for a studio. "It is something I have wanted all my life, and I hope to find one. The children are growing up and I expect to have half a day for my painting. I would like to be able to illustrate children's books. Up to now, I did not dare to hope that all this would be possible, but now I think I may be able to do it. At least I know that it all now depends on me."

Stanislawa Czajkowska-Bafia reported an important change in her family's life since she bought a Fiat 1399 automobile. The family outing on wheels has become a regular event. "I was thrilled when I received my driver's license," she said. "But the really important news in our family is that my husband has received his law degree and is now working on his thesis for a professorship."

Another new car owner is Irene Backiel, who recovered from tuberculosis while in the United States. "I now live the kind of vigorous life I had always wished for. I think I have shed years from my life. I can climb mountains. I swim whenever I can. It gives me very deep happiness to be out in the open and to be close to nature."

Jadwiga Gisges spends most of her time helping to take care of her grown daughter, a ten-year-old granddaughter, and a seventy-nine-year-old brother. Because of all these obligations she is apprehensive about buying a flat, "for then I might be in financial difficulties again." In her present quarters she has to share a single bathroom and kitchen with five families. "But I am able now to do many things I have not done before. What do I wish for? Perhaps before I die I would like to visit my friends again in the United States. And it would be very nice to have a flat of my own."

Maria Skibinska is over her asthma but she said she is "conscious that she has an organ inside her called a heart." Her husband is ailing now with an ulcer of the colon. Her two children are growing up very fast. Both of them —a boy and a girl—are studying English. "I don't have to work any more, thanks to the compensation, so I can take care of my children, who know at last that they have a real mother."

Maria Cabaj no longer works professionally. With her compensation she brought a new house and a small plot of land. "I no longer have to carry water from a community well. We have running water in this house. We also have a shed for a cow and thirty chickens. We have a nice garden. I have planted many roses. My family—a husband, two children, and three grandchildren—are very happy with these improved conditions."

Wladyslawa Marczewska and her family spent several weeks last summer at a health resort in Bulgaria. "It was a good experience. There was much sun, and the sea and the iodine were good for my nerves. What do I like to do now? I like to meet with the other girls who have been to the United States and talk about our experiences there. And we all dream about the time that our American friends will come to us. We would so much like to see Caroline Ferriday in our own homes."

And so it went. There is not enough space to report on every one of the Polish ladies, but the brief accounts presented above are a representative cross-section of the entire group. If any *SR* readers would like a more particularized report on specific individuals, the requests will be promptly met.

ONE more point. Jadwiga Dzido-Hassa, who was the first of the Polish ladies I met in Warsaw five years ago and who acted as my guide and interpreter, said that perhaps the greatest change in the condition of the ladies was psychological rather than material. "Why are we wealthy?" she asked. "We are wealthy because we know that whatever happens in the world we now have real friends. This is what counts. We have emotional security and it is a wonderful thing. To have people close to us gives us a feeling of warmth and well-being and we think about it and talk about it all the time."

When I asked the ladies at the dinner what they would do if they had a magic wand, the answer came back without hesitation. They said almost with one voice that what they wanted was a world free of fear, free of brutality, free of war. As Irene Backiel said: "If I had a magic wand, I would try to make all people wise enough to make a better world. With this magic wand, I would abolish all frontiers, do away with all deadly devices, and introduce human beings to the real meaning of love and harmony. Nobody in this wonderful land of mine would have to worry about telling children about their murdered or tortured parents or grandparents or about death camps and destroyed cities. And people would spend their energies developing human wisdom." —N.C.

Always We Walk Through Unknown People

By James Schevill

ALWAYS we walk through unknown people,
Guessing them; the click of meeting
Steps lightly into passing, as our guess
Rides through curious air in a glance
Or grimace—an elusive grin—
To walk through faces, eyes, legs,
Arms, nodding necks, similar veins;
A peculiar pulse prods through flesh,
Pounding in a rage of recognition:
That person I guess is somewhere me,
Somehow I walk in his difference,
This meeting sometime is our parting,
To guess him is our only greeting.

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LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

SOPHISTICATION?

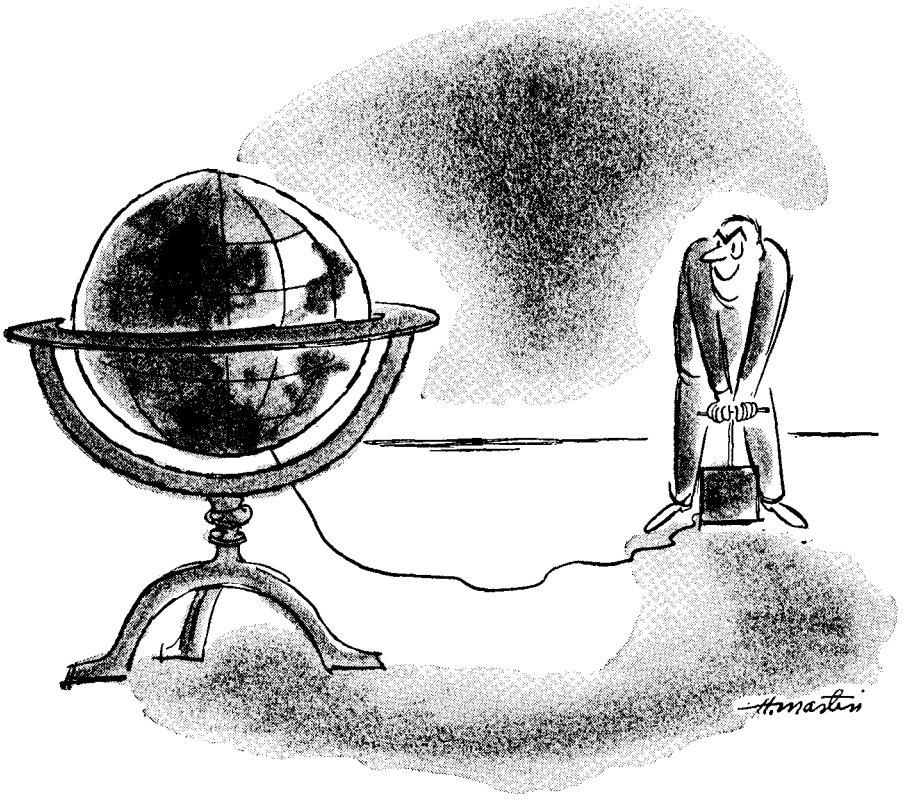
I AM MOST interested in Dr. S. Roy's assurance that "few countries are more biologically sophisticated than India," and his suggestion that we should follow India's example [LETTERS TO THE EDITOR, Jan. 19]. Surely, as a physician, Dr. Roy is aware that the mean life expectancy in this country is in the low seventies, and that in India it is in the very low thirties.

Dr. Roy also quotes India's low divorce rate as evidence that family-arranged marriage "has proved to be the most enduring basis for a lifelong marital relationship," yet when he uses the word "love" he feels compelled to enclose it in quotation marks, indicating that he feels love to be a superstition used by Westerners to justify their folly.

Apparently Dr. Roy sees the world faced with a choice between not infrequent illegitimacies and divorces on the one hand, and loveless but stable marriages, overwhelming overpopulation, near-universal malnutruition, and probable death at the age of thirty-one on the other. I invite him to explain his reasons for making the second choice, and for calling it "biological sophistication."

ROBERT SHERMAN.

Merion Station, Pa.



I AM HIGHLY DISTRESSED to see the letter of Dr. S. Roy of Bombay, India. Its content is filled with inaccuracy, arrogance, and self-righteousness. I am distressed because I happen to be a citizen of India. My forefathers have been living in India for the last few thousand years. Four years ago I came to the United States for higher education. I have no reason to be less patriotic than any of my countrymen, but I beg to differ with a superpatriot.

I happen to come from a type of family (an average middle-class educated family in Bengal) which discourages marriage of girls under twenty and men under twenty-four.

Marriage and divorce statistics of India are highly fabricated by Dr. Roy. From my personal experience I know that a great majority of marriages in India are performed in religious ceremonies without any legal license or notification to any authority. A birth, legitimate or not, even in a big city, not to speak of innumerable villages, may not be reported to an authority. Divorce among educated middle-class people is extremely low (women in this class are economically dependent on men and are still considered virtually as their property) but desertion among the vast majority of uneducated poor people is completely unaccounted for in the statistics.

In other words, no reliable statistics can be given about the percentage of illegitimate births, marriages, divorces, or desertions in that country of 430 million people belonging to a vast spectrum of culture, race, religion, and economic strata. A gross generalization is bound to be highly misrepresentative.

Lastly, the moral question of illegitimacy is one on which many people differ, in or outside India.

BINAYAK GHOSH.

Denton, Tex.

Q. & A.

WHERE ON EARTH do you find fellows like Hoke Norris to review books? And having found him, *why* do you subject the work of a fine novelist like Nadine Gordimer to his scrutiny?

Now I haven't read "Occasion for Loving" [*SR*, Jan. 12]. I have no way of knowing whether this is one of Miss Gordimer's significant contributions to the understanding of human relationships or perhaps a gallant attempt to deal with difficult subject matter which may not have come off. I could not possibly find out from Mr. Norris. . . .

What does Mr. Norris do? He divides novelists into two classes: those who write life, and those who write *about* life. He deprecates Miss Gordimer because he thinks she is one of the latter, although in passing this judgment he relegates her to some distinguished company; I daresay she will take some wry comfort from joining Henry James and Virginia Woolf. The reviewer then proceeds through some puerile ruminations about readers being swamped in rationalizations. Mr. Norris's antipathy for thought is understandable; his writing indicates little capacity for analysis. Reflective reading is not for the likes of him; much better to pulse and throb with Algren or O'Hara.

I urge that a fine artist like Miss Gordimer deserves better. . . . There are not a great many novelists who are writing as well as she. The confrontation of the races in South Africa is a condition of vast significance for all humanity. Whatever Miss Gordimer has to say about this fearful predicament is worth knowing about. . . .

JOHN P. CONRAD.

Davis, Calif.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Norris replies: "All criticism is the expression of opinion. There are no objective standards for the formulation of critical opinion. I have expressed my opinion of Miss Gordimer's work. The letter expresses an opinion of me. I am not disposed to argue with it."*

AGAINST THE TIDE

KATHARINE KUH, in her illuminating article on the Franz Kline exhibit now touring the country [*SR*, Jan. 26], has filled a major gap, for few other reviewers chose to pay attention to this exhibit. Miss Kuh should be praised for her deep insight into the work of Franz Kline, and for her ability to appreciate the finest painting America has produced at a time when it is being severely derided by other critics.

GABRIEL WEISBERG.

Jamaica, N.Y.

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Dial M for Mother

THE apparent intention of William Inge's new play, "**Natural Affection,**" is interesting and theatrical. An illegitimate child named Donnie was placed in an orphanage by his mother so that she might work. In trouble with the police at the age of fourteen, he was sent to a work farm where he was cruelly treated. Now seventeen, he returns home for the Christmas holidays in search of protection and affection from his mother, whom he adores. This "home" is his last alternative to abandoning himself to a criminal and antisocial existence. And the playwright has tried to construct it as a sort of quagmire of modern anxieties and conditions.

In it, Donnie's fortyish mother, Sue Barker, is living with a man who won't marry her because she, as head buyer for a Chicago department store, makes more money than he does as an automobile salesman. She doesn't love Donnie, whose father abandoned her in mid-pregnancy, as much as she feels guilty about how he is turning out. Donnie's potential stepfather, Bernie Slovenik, is a crude, somewhat immature, and self-centered guy who resents the intrusion of Donnie as an inevitable opponent for Sue's affection. Across the hall lives Vince Brinkman, an unattractive latent homosexual, who feels continually driven to prove his virility by marrying a young girl, by lots of public talk about sex, and by showing dirty movies. His wife Claire detests him and has become promiscuous. Surrounding these people is a cold world which no longer builds things to last because it doesn't really believe that *it* will last.

As a result of Donnie's introduction into this complex, everything erupts, with the final explosion being his distraught mother's revelation of her harshest feelings about him. This leads him to an impulsive and savage knifing of a casual drunken girl who has made the mistake of wandering in at the wrong moment to offer him sex with the accidentally unfortunate metaphorical phrase, "Come to mother."

Thus, in its outline, "Natural Affection" is bold and significant. But for some reason, Mr. Inge has filled in that outline with slice-of-life detail and vulgarity that seem sordid without being sufficiently poetic, and unpleasant without being sufficiently bitter.

The actors tend to compound the play's hyponaturalism by giving brilliantly worked out, fully emotional performances. We never for an instant doubt Kim Stanley as she exposes her vulnerability to a man who makes her physically happy. Yet her very warmth keeps us from believing that she could ever have put Donnie in an orphanage in the first place, or that she could now under any provocation turn on him as cruelly as the script dictates. Harry Guardino is also more convincing in his portrayal of the sex relationship with her than he is in his concern about his status in the outside world, or his subconsciously motivated dislike of Donnie. Tom Bosley shows us the unpleasantness of Vince but does little with his emotional involvement with Bernie. And Gregory Rozakis depicts the lone coldness of Donnie so well that we scarcely believe the depth of his feelings about his mother.

Tony Richardson's staging and Oliver Smith's settings work to preserve the play's grim shape and to emphasize the impassive perversion of emotionally warm good intentions by an increasingly cool and viciously competitive world. But it is of little avail. For "Natural Affection" doesn't give us sufficient insight into the world of its adolescent victim. Mr. Inge might contend that in his plays, as in life, everyone is an uncomprehending victim, but isn't it one of the theatre's functions to reveal to us in clear, clean strokes what in life may seem hopelessly messy?

THE imported Royal Shakespeare Company's presentation of "**The Hollow Crown**" is composed of a series of songs and excerpted short pieces of writing by or about British kings and queens. Under Peter Brook's direction the small cast of actors and singers sits around with notebooks successfully pretending to enjoy each other's deliveries more than they do their own. Most captivating is Dorothy Tutin's rendition of an "attack" on Queen Elizabeth for her treatment of Mary Queen of Scots written by Jane Austen when she was fifteen. And Max Adrian cavorts in high gear as Horace Walpole naughtily describing the fun to be observed at George II's funeral. We may not always be delighted so thoroughly, but the proceedings are most civilized and never go on with a thing past the point where we might begin to become bored.

—HENRY HEWES.

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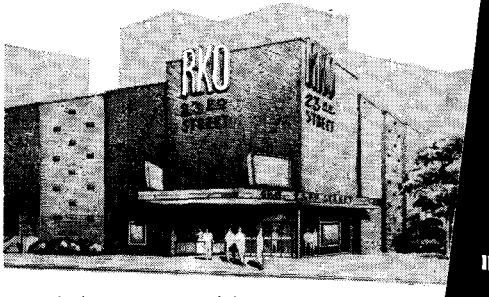

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Two Votes for Humanity

THE MESSAGE of William Perlberg's and George Seaton's new film, "**The Hook,**" is so bromidic that it comes as something of a shock to realize that we have not heard it in movies lately. In this age of not-so-cold wars, the notion that the enemy might not only be human, but even a decent human being, has become exceedingly unpopular. It is so much easier to hate, so much more comfortable to compound an abstract figure that contains all the villainies we abhor and give it a label. The process is facilitated when there are national, racial, and language barriers, and direct communication breaks down. We all know this; indeed, the very word "communication" is rapidly becoming another cliché of our times. The hard fact is, however, that once the abstractions are brought to focus on a concrete case, once we are forced to consider their implications in terms of our own lives or our national posture, the glib bromides and clichés suddenly turn ominous. They clash with the practicalities of our uneasy peace.

Such is the thinking that obviously lies behind "The Hook." The film, promptly getting down to cases, carries us back to the last days of the war in Korea. An American detachment evacuating a bomb-swept stronghold reluctantly takes along as prisoner a downed and wounded enemy pilot, a "gook." As their (symbolically?) neutral ship makes for the U.N. base in South Korea, ROK headquarters summarily orders the men to kill their prisoner. The sergeant in command (Kirk Douglas), a twenty-year man, has been trained to obey; he is fully prepared to murder the "Gook" in cold blood. But his hand is deflected in the act by a more sensitive recruit (Robert Walker), and the shot merely wounds the Korean. Then, in the enforced intimacy of their cabin—there is still another G.I. (Nick Adams), the sergeant's bitter, hard-drinking stooge—they begin to debate not only who should do the killing, but whether they have the moral right to do it.

As often happens in exercises of this sort, author Henry Denker gets carried away by the sheer power of words, permitting his characters insights and an eloquence patently beyond their capacities. They become, in a word, literary. And no matter how important the talk, you find yourself wishing that they would get on with the business at hand. Fortunately, the script does spring back to life for the finale. Just as news of the armistice flashes through the ship, the men discover that their prisoner has escaped into a hold crammed with drums of high-octane gasoline, carrying with him a straight-edge razor and a pack of matches. Unable to communicate (ironically, the G.I. phrasebook contains no words for "peace" or "armistice"), the men scramble after the captive they could not kill in a frantic effort to keep him from killing them. As a final twist, after the "Gook" has been cornered and bludgeoned to death, the men learn that his last words translate into "I can't." Their dilemma had become his as well.

Well acted, reasonably dramatic, and unflinchingly high-principled, "The Hook" speaks for humanity, which is no small thing in the context of today's movies. The only trouble is, it speaks a little too much.

Because the fate of a prisoner rests largely in the hands of others, he tends to be more pitiable than admirable—a reproach, or at most a threat. Only when he breaks his bonds, when he is no longer a prisoner, does he spring dramatically to life. Because the Korean in "The Hook" remains passive until almost the last reel, the action seems to circle about him rather than involve him. In Jean Renoir's "**The Elusive Corporal,**" on the other hand, the central character, a sad-eyed Frenchman (Jean-Pierre Cassel) in a German POW camp, is in motion from the very start. His one obsession is to escape, and this obsession remains with him despite setbacks that are in turn funny, ironic, and sheer disaster. What Renoir seems to be saying, with a happy minimum of conversation, is that freedom is the natural state of man, that the struggle for freedom is the proper exercise of manhood, and that the dousing of this flame is tantamount to extinguishing life itself.

The nature of the subject reminds one, perforce, of Renoir's earlier "Grande Illusion," and not only because of its emphasis on escape. More than any director, Renoir is sensitive to the spiritual strengths of mankind, the life force that has made mankind endure. And through forty years of picture making, he has gained the mastery to create trenchant scenes and scripts in which man's undaunted spirit clearly manifests itself. "The Hook" speaks for humanity, which is fine; but Renoir's film does far more—it *shows* us humanity, and humanity at its most inspiring moments. —ARTHUR KNIGHT.

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Beware the Wizard Man

By GRANVILLE HICKS

PERHAPS because it is some time since Truman Capote has published a book, Random House has decided to bring out his "**Selected Writings**" ($5.95). After all, though he is under forty, he has had quite a career, for "A Tree of Night"—the story, of course, not the volume by that name—was published in 1943. The present collection includes ten short stories, a novelette ("Breakfast at Tiffany's"), several descriptive pieces, and a couple of more ambitious articles. Mark Schorer has contributed a brief, enthusiastic introduction.

The early stories, which seemed so precociously brilliant when they appeared some twenty years ago, are still impressive. Young as he was, Capote's style was formed. He had an extraordinary gift for descriptive phrases, and if he sometimes looked at them as Jack Horner looked at his plum, he could be forgiven the self-consciousness because of his power and originality. In his essay in "The Living Novel" Herbert Gold referred to Capote as one of "the chattering poets of decoration," but if the term is not wholly inapplicable, it does less than justice.

Capote had a theme as well as a style. In "A Tree of Night" a pleasantly ordinary sort of girl on her way back to college is beset by two grotesque strangers and thrust into the darkest terror. Capote writes:

> Staring up into his harmless, vapid face, flushed brilliant by the lantern light, Kay knew of what she was afraid: it was a memory, a childish memory of terrors that once, long ago, had hovered above her like haunted limbs on a tree of night. Aunts, cooks, strangers—each eager to spin a tale or teach a rhyme of spooks and death, omens, spirits, demons. And always there had been the unfailing threat of the wizard man: stay close to the house, child, else a wizard man'll snatch you and eat you alive! He lived everywhere, the wizard man, and everywhere was danger. At night, in bed, hear him tapping at the window? Listen!

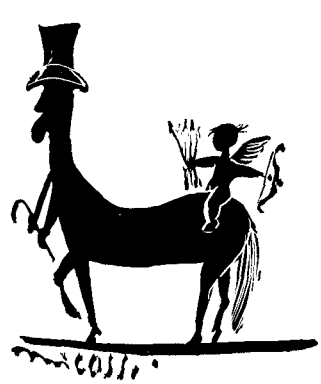
As Schorer says, "The 'wizard man,' in one guise or another, is everywhere in these stories." "A childish memory of terror"—this is the key to all the Gothic stories and to the Gothic novel, "Other Voices, Other Rooms." Capote's other theme might be described as "a childish memory of joys." This is what we find in "A Christmas Memory," which is thickly overlaid with nostalgia:

> Imagine a morning in late November. A coming of winter morning more than twenty years ago. Consider the kitchen of a spreading old house in a country town. A great black stove is its main feature; but there is also a big round table and a fireplace with two rocking chairs placed in front of it. Just today the fireplace commenced its seasonal roar.

This story of a seven-year-old boy and his gentle, childlike cousin of more than sixty is a forerunner of "The Grass Harp," which has a boy, two cousins, and an eccentric judge. Capote's heaven as well as his hell is shaped by childhood memories.

In his fiction Capote is almost always concerned with childhood in one form or another. In that remarkable story "Children on Their Birthdays" we have a ten-year-old girl, Miss Bobbitt, who is a perfect mock adult. "House of Flowers" describes the marital misadventures of a young and childlike prostitute. Holly Golightly in "Breakfast at Tiffany's," bold, unconventional, high-spirited — "a lop-sided romantic," as the narrator calls her—is living out a childhood dream.

The nonfiction is quite different, for here Capote shows himself at home in an adult world. The early travel pieces —on New Orleans, Ischia, Spain—are vividly written and based on careful observation, and the values they recognize, though a little special, are adult values. The same is true of a later sketch, "A House on the Heights,"



though its mannerisms are rather coy. Whatever else may be true, these places are not seen through a child's eye.

Best of the nonfiction are two long articles that originally appeared in *The New Yorker*. "The Duke in His Domain" is a profile of Marlon Brando that holds to the *New Yorker* profile pattern and yet varies it skilfully. Capote interviewed the actor in Japan, where he was filming "Sayonara," and a good deal is made of the exotic setting. But Capote keeps his eye on Brando and, for all his lightness of touch, probes deeply. There is in the piece a restrained cattiness, but the restraint is firm, and the touch of malice adds savor to the revelation of Brando's character. Although, so far as I know, this is the only thing of its kind that Capote has done, he proves himself something of a master.

The longest piece, "The Muses Are Heard," is also the best. At the end of 1955 a company that had been touring the world for four years with "Porgy and Bess" took the opera to Russia. Leonard Lyons, Ira Wolfert, and Capote went along to report on the expedition. After indicating the difficulties involved in the making of arrangements, Capote describes the long train ride from Berlin to Leningrad, with its tediousness and its little mishaps. Then he tells about the experiences of the company in Russia, and quietly gives his own impressions of that country. It is a first-rate piece of reporting, with a fine eye for detail, a friendly sense of the idiosyncrasies of show people, a great deal of humor, and a lively style that is suited to a lively occasion.

In his nonfiction Capote is a sophisticated man of the world, a man who knows his way around, who is aware of many sorts of issues, political and otherwise. He is knowledgeable, shrewd, alert, curious, both malicious and tolerant, and not in the least childlike.

According to Schorer, Capote's next book will be "the re-creation of a brutal Kansas murder and its consequences." I wonder which Capote will be in it—the man of the world or the explorer of childhood terrors. I have no wish to disparage his stories and novels of children and childlike people. Along with Carson McCullers, J. D. Salinger, and John Updike, he has found in childhood a fruitful field for his talents. But I speculate as to what would happen if he applied his gifts as a writer of fiction to themes from the adult world he knows so well. Perhaps it would be a mistake, but I rather doubt it. Schorer makes much of Capote's versatility, and I share his feeling that the man may have great surprises in store for us.

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FICTION

Foibles of an Unwitting Feminist

"After the Banquet," by Yukio Mishima, *translated by Donald Keene (Knopf. 271 pp. $4), the twelfth novel by one of Japan's most gifted young authors, deals with such varied subjects as love in conflict with age; politics; mores, and the changing position of women. Gay Wilson Allen, biographer, critic, and teacher, has lectured in Japan on American literature.*

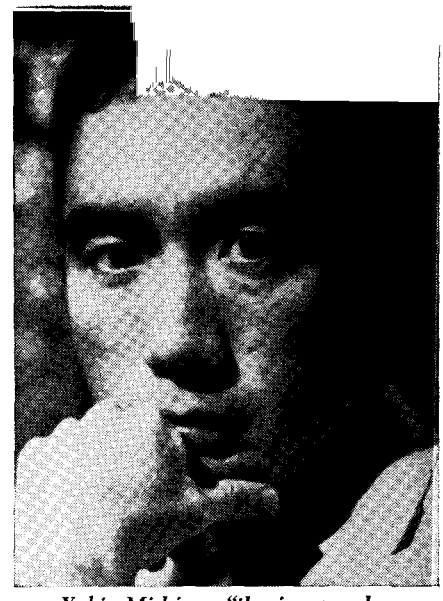
By GAY WILSON ALLEN

YUKIO MISHIMA, still in his thirties, has published twelve novels, ten of which have been made into movies, and is generally regarded as the most talented young writer in Japan. His latest novel, "After the Banquet," lives up to his reputation. The protagonist is an attractive, resourceful woman of fifty, Kazu Fukuzawa, who has risen by her wits, beauty, and personality from an ignorant country girl to proprietress of the Setsugoan, a famous restaurant in the hilly part of the Koishikawa district of Tokyo. With all the charm and prestige of a geisha, which she is not, she is the special confidante of the leader of the Conservative Party, whose patronage had added greatly to her wealth. But then, at a banquet given at the Setsugoan, she meets Noguchi, a former cabinet member, now in his seventies and a member of the Diet for the Radical Party.

Kazu thought she was through with love; but she develops such an affection for this paradoxical man, an aristocrat by habit and disposition yet an opponent of aristocrats in politics, that she maneuvers him into marriage. In addition to the complications that such a marriage would have encountered in the Western world because of physical, social, and cultural incompatibility, there are also other conflicts typically Japanese. Both her wealth and her experience have made Kazu independent and self-willed, and at every turn she innocently offends Noguchi's masculine pride. Despite his ultra-liberal politics, he believes almost instinctively in the subordinate position of women and of wives in particular.

Kazu is no feminist; she offends her husband not on principle but because of her overpowering urge to help him, which causes her to violate his moral code, to bring about his political defeat, and to expose herself to the vilest slander. Here "After the Banquet" becomes a brilliantly revealing sociopolitical study of the impact of American culture on Japanese society. The novel may be regarded as a satire, a political allegory, a human comedy, or a pathetic love story. It is actually all these, and a poem as well.

Symbolism plays a much greater role in the Japanese mentality—in language, gesture, sensibility, dress, etc.—than in Western consciousness. In addition, Kazu has retained her rural superstitious belief in signs and portents: as she arranges flowers in a bowl of water she feels that she is practicing divination, and the novelist's imagery becomes symbolic and prophetic, but



Yukio Mishima—"the imagery becomes symbolic and prophetic."

completely natural and unforced. The translator has rendered this without the slightest artificiality: "Just then a bird's shadow darted across the open bay window, and a withered leaf was flicked from a small branch reaching almost to the window." These are not symbols of death, but images of maturation, which Kazu finally comes to understand and accept. Her acceptance provides a delightfully satisfactory ending for the novel.

Innocents Under a Bridge

"The Street Where the Heart Lies," by Ludwig Bemelmans *(World. 236 pp. $3.95), salts the sentimentality of a Pygmalion-Galatea love story with macabre and satiric digressions. Burling Lowrey edited "Twentieth Century Parody."*

By BURLING LOWREY

WITH the exception of occasional excursions into bitterness and disenchantment, the late Ludwig Bemelmans managed, during a literary career covering about twenty-five productive years, to sustain an irrepressibly romantic, childlike innocence. He has been compared to Ronald Firbank, but his work taken as a whole more closely resembles that of William Saroyan, with its whimsy, its "beautiful people," and its overflowing love for eccentrics, outcasts, and worldly failures. The title of one of his early books, "I Love You, I Love You, I Love You," sums up perfectly the authentic Bemelmans.

Toward the end of his life Bemelmans seemed to have settled on Paris as the place that best suited his peculiar temperament, and his last novel, "The Street Where the Heart Lies," with its immense *joie de vivre*, suggests that he died a happy man. As in so many of Bemelmans's books, the core of the current one is a gallery of charming failures, some of whom strained this reader's credulity. Among them are a vagrant, who lives under a bridge along the Seine and is joined by an expatriated American professor; a romantic taxidermist; a German masseur, who holds philosophical discourses while practicing his art; an Italian film producer, who works as hard at seduction as he does at making movies; a Mother Superior, an Arab snake dancer. Saroyanesques all.

The story, what little there is of it, is a kind of perverse version of the Pygmalion-Galatea myth. Bemelmans's Galatea is Gala, a virginal French *stripeuse*, with the dimensions and beauty of a goddess. Her Pygmalion is Miomo Corti, who worships the ground she stands on but at the same time exploits her cruelly by demanding perfection in what must be the most elaborately artistic strip act on record. Much of the novel is taken up with

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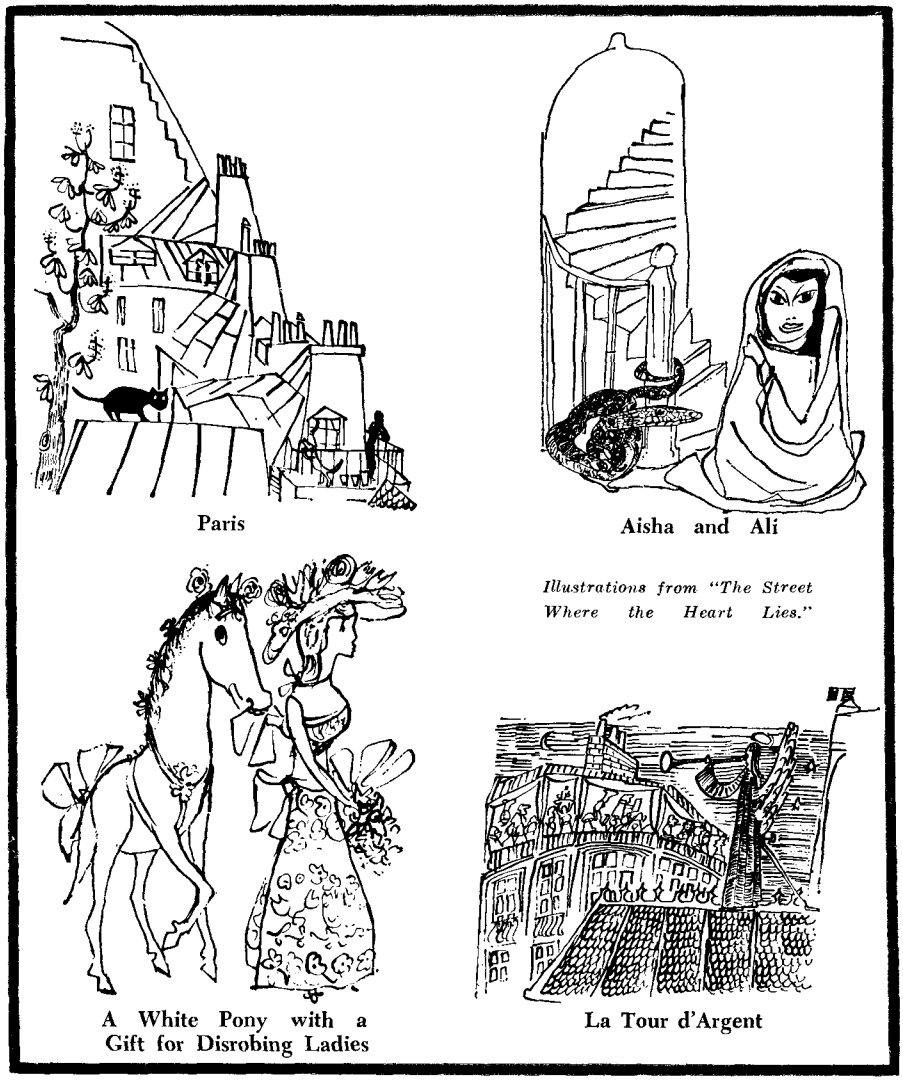
how the fatal charm of Gala works its magic on a series of adoring suitors. Only one wins, of course, but the losers remain worshipful to the end.

At first glance, one might think that this type of thing would end up as the worst kind of sentimental rubbish, but Bemelmans is not a trashy writer. He is a superb craftsman with a sure eye for atmospheric detail and a supremely accurate ear for the speech of Adult Innocents madly in love with the unattainable. Even if the love story does become too cloying, there are digressive chapters of biting satire and macabre humor to counteract the excessively romantic.

IN one such chapter, "Perfect Service," Bemelmans summons up a lifetime of familiarity with elegant eating establishments to devastate the chilling snobbery and the ridiculous adherence to protocol that exist in such places. In another chapter, a flashback called "Silent Night," the taxidermist escapes on Christmas Eve from the Dachau concentration camp by killing a St. Bernard dog and covering himself with the pelt. ("In the guardhouse, Nazis in festive mood, with jolly faces, took punch glasses in hand and toasted each other. Santa Claus brought gifts and some Gestapo men came, singing, carrying packages, lifting their children up to see the Christmas tree.") This episode is a weird mixture of the funny and the grotesque; and it seems closer to the sort of sick humor practiced by Lenny Bruce than to the more gentle type that pervades most of the book. Still, it does stick menacingly in the mind.

If this novel does nothing else, it confirms the opinion of many that Bemelmans was a writer who defied classification. In spite of some superficial similarities with other writers, he was a complete original, with an absolutely unique temperament and view toward the world. As for his dominant theme, it is best expressed by Miomo Corti-Pygmalion-Bemelmans: "For love, like joy and pain, resides in the mind, not in the organs. It increases. I loved her more, in all the ways of love that are noble. I prayed to her as to a statue—do you understand?"



Paris

Aisha and Ali

Illustrations from "The Street Where the Heart Lies."

A White Pony with a Gift for Disrobing Ladies

La Tour d'Argent

Lotus in Limbo

"Two Loves," by Han Suyin *(Putnam. 288 pp. $4.50), comprises two stories of doomed passion, one set in the East and the other in London. Robert Payne, a prolific author of fiction and nonfiction, also edited "Contemporary Chinese Stories."*

By ROBERT PAYNE

I USED to know in Singapore the brilliant and ruggedly handsome foreign correspondent who died tragically in Korea and who became, under the name of "Mark Elliott," the hero of Han Suyin's extraordinary novel "A Many-Splendored Thing." I do not think he would have approved of the book, but he would have admitted to its essential accuracy. Han Suyin wrote about him with a raw, lyrical affection that sometimes blazed into a passion of adoration, and was no worse for that. She wrote like a lovelorn angel, drunk with the milk of Paradise. Somehow, by some miracle, her English preserved the singing quality of Chinese. It was a breathtaking novel, and deserved the acclamation it received.

Afterwards, one wondered—not about the novel, which still retains its magic, but about her development as a writer. What on earth could she do next? How could she possibly retain the sense of the world's newness, seeing everything as it must have been on the day of Creation? I saw some articles she wrote on Singapore shortly after her success. They were hard, labored, oddly sterile. Her writing did not sing any more. There were flashes of the old brilliance, but the joy had gone out of it. Previously she had delighted in belonging to two traditions, Chinese and British, but now they seemed to be at war with one another, quarreling furiously within her. She seemed to be writing from no-man's-land, desperately reaching out for solutions, chipping each word off her breast bone. She produced a novel about Malaya, and the characters seemed preposterously unreal, the writing jagged, the politics thrown in pell-mell. Malaya was alive, but the people were transparent ghosts in search of their own deaths, forgetting that they had already died.

I am afraid "Two Loves" is no better. The ghosts cry out, but they never come alive. The first of the two stories is a long lament on the death of "Moen the lovely, Devi of the lotus born," a half-French, half-Indonesian child, who is not in fact dead, nor a child, but

(*Continued on page* 57)

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A Divine Dichotomy

"Daily Life in the Time of Jesus," by Henri Daniel-Rops, *translated from the French by Patrick O'Brian (Hawthorn. 510 pp. $6), and* ***"The Death of Jesus," by Joel Carmichael*** *(Macmillan. 274 pp. $4.95), view the question of the divinity of Christ from diametrically opposite poles. Leonard Cottrell's studies of the Biblical period include "Life Under the Pharaohs."*

By LEONARD COTTRELL

THERE is an innate difficulty in reviewing any book dealing with the Christian religion. If the author is an avowed Christian and the reviewer an agnostic, Christian readers will view his comments with suspicion. If, on the other hand, the author is non-Christian, or at least unorthodox in his approach, a Christian reviewer's attitude can hardly fail to be critical, thus alienating agnostics, while an agnostic reviewer will be suspected of partiality by Christian readers. Since the books under review take diametrically opposite points of view on the divinity of Christ, your reviewer, who hovers unhappily between these two poles, may at least be as well qualified to judge their quality as those who sit firmly on one or the other side of the fence.

M. Daniel-Rops is a Frenchman and, I judge, a liberal Catholic, since his book exhibits humanity, tolerance, humor, and casually worn scholarship. Mr. Carmichael is an Oxford graduate who started his study under a scholarship in ancient Oriental languages. He takes as his theme Albert Schweitzer's statement that "we must be prepared to find that the historical knowledge of the personality of Jesus will not be a help, but perhaps an offense to religion." In Schweitzer's words, he "tried to bring Jesus to life at the call of love, and found it a cruel task to be honest." Carmichael's view, briefly summarized, is that the historical Jesus, far from being the divine transmitter of a new message of universal love and forgiveness, was in fact a political revolutionary who tried to establish the "kingdom of God" on earth; that he was a warlike Messiah, "King of the Jews" who led an insurrectionary mob into Jerusalem, was betrayed, then tried and condemned by the Romans (not the Jews) as an agent of sedition.

Mr. Carmichael seeks to explain away the Gospel view of Jesus by suggesting that the founders of Christianity, despairing of winning hostile Jews to the universal, divine, and glorified meaning of the Crucifixion, turned for converts to the pagan masses of the Roman Empire; that they deliberately suppressed the historical Jesus in order to create the image of an all-loving Father with a universal message of divine love and redemption. Jesus, he thinks, "thought of himself as no more than the herald of an imminent material transformation of the world . . . his message was addressed to the Jews of his time and to no one else, and upon the failure of the kingdom of God to appear he embarked on an altogether different course of action which led to his violent death."

By contrast M. Daniel-Rops patiently and successfully builds up a picture of life in Palestine in the time of Christ, based partly on written records, partly on the results of archeological research, and partly on his own observations in modern Israel. For me the Catholic apologist, with his tolerance and humanity, carries far more conviction than Mr. Carmichael's sharply-argued rationalism. Of course, the French author has the advantage of a secure and confident faith. "This was," he writes, "something extraordinarily original, something that made Abraham's descendants a nation truly unique in the world, the recipients of an incomparable revelation and thus the Chosen People, the People of the Covenant. The pride of the humblest Jew had no other cause than this: that he knew that he was the ally of God."

If the sceptical mind rejects this pietism, it is immediately reassured by lines which make it clear that M. Daniel-Rops looks at the Jewish social and political system with a clear and candid eye. A lyrical description of the Palestinian countryside is followed by such realistic passages as these:

> Daughters were no addition to the family fortunes, since as soon as they were married they belonged to other families. "Girls are but an illusory treasure" observes the Talmud, and then adds "besides, they have to be watched continually." . . .
>
> The woman suspected of adultery was put to that same ordeal of bitter water that fiancées had to suffer . . . It is described exactly in the Book of Numbers. She had to drink a horrible mixture, in which the chief ingredient was dust from the Temple floor, and if she vomited or felt unwell her guilt was taken as certain. If she were taken in the act itself she was . . . "dragged . . . by the neck of her gown" before the people and killed.

The brutal savagery of the ancient Hebrews towards their womenfolk repels, and so does their criminal code:

> The forms of execution were many and various . . . burning was carried out by the condemned person being thrust into a dunghill as far as his waist while his upper half was surrounded by tow and two executioners forced open his mouth to thrust a lighted stick into it . . . A son who had struck his father was strangled; so was a false prophet; and this was done with a garrott.

The above quoted passages are

(*Continued on page 37*)

Your Literary I. Q.

Conducted by John T. Winterich

TEN BY TEN BY TEN

Here, submitted by Walter G. Leight of San Diego, California, are ten ten-letter anagrams each of which contains the word *ten*. Tension is relieved on page 32.

1. Ten deer sit
2. Mid ten deer
3. Ten A.L. stars
4. Our ten axes
5. Relay me ten
6. Ten ratings
7. A long ten, Pa.
8. Ten rams (*sic*)
9. Ten do spend
10. Rises at ten.

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The Foremost Federalist

"The Papers of Alexander Hamilton," Vols. V and VI, edited by Harold C. Syrett and Jacob E. Cooke *(Columbia University Press. xiv, 609 pp. xiii, 629 pp. $12.50 each), document the statesman's fight for ratification of the Constitution and for a sound system of public finance. American historian Richard B. Morris edited "The Basic Ideas of Alexander Hamilton."*

By RICHARD B. MORRIS

THESE two volumes give us authoritative documentation on a little over two years, 1788-90, that were critical for the building of the American nation as well as for the evolution of the political thinking of Alexander Hamilton, one of its foremost architects. Long identified as an avant-garde nationalist, he who had been insistent upon conferring on the central government powers in keeping with its responsibilities, Hamilton devoted the full measure of his talents to supporting the new Constitution. Even though that document by no means mirrored his own thinking, he carried on the battle for its ratification, and endeavored to build a system that would insure its perpetuity.

Readers of the preceding pair of books in this distinguished multivolume edition may refresh their recollection on what Hamilton really proposed in the Philadelphia Convention. How serious Hamilton was in pressing his proposals of June 18, 1787, for a President to serve during good behavior and possessed of an absolute veto, we shall never know. Although Hamilton probably turned over to Madison his draft of a constitution near the close of the Convention, as the editors insist, it certainly did not reflect his revised thinking by that date. In a letter to Timothy Pickering, written in 1803, Hamilton not only defended his June propositions as "experimental," and offered with the expectation that they would be "received merely as suggestions for consideration," but flatly denied that he had ever proposed a President or a Senate for life.

Hamilton's memory failed him here, as it was to regarding the attribution of authorship of certain disputed "Federalist" letters. All accounts, including Hamilton's own, show that he had advocated life tenure, both in his June 18th speech and in his draft of a Constitution. But his memory was not entirely at fault, for on September 6th he had already swung around to the view that the President should be elected for a short term of years, and publicly opposed a seven-year term as too long. By that date he was advocating re-eligibility for election to the Presidency provided the term was short.

Indeed, Hamilton was too much a pragmatist to feel himself restricted by certain tentative views he had once expressed on the Constitution. Regardless of his reservations about republican institutions and the democratic processes and his equivocal stand on setting up a monarchy in America, Hamilton plunged, with sensational results, into the fight for ratification. His major contributions were his "Federalist" letters, previously published in this new edition, and his series of effective speeches before the New York Convention at Poughkeepsie, presented here in volume V, in their variant versions.

The sixth volume deals primarily with the formation and administration of the Treasury. The variety of problems which faced the first Secretary of that department, and the topics upon which he was consulted by President Washington, ranged far beyond narrow fiscal matters and gave ample scope for Hamilton's statecraft. Most notable of the documents included in this volume is his Report on Public Credit, with its detailed provisions for refunding the inherited debt of the Confederation. In a learned note the editors suggest that, although Hamilton was influenced by a number of British and Continental political economists, as well as by Americans like Robert and Gouverneur Morris and William Bingham, much that we find in that masterly report carries the authentic Hamiltonian stamp. As early as 1779-80 Hamilton had urged the federal government to set up a sound system of public finance, and a number of the ideas found in this paper reflect his earlier thinking.

Suffice to say, this state paper constitutes a watershed in American history. It marked the end of an era of bankruptcy and repudiation, while at the same time it exposed a deepening cleavage between the Hamiltonian nationalists on the one hand and the proponents of states' rights on the other. In the latter camp we now find James Madison. This cleavage led to the formation of the Federalist and Jeffersonian Republican parties.

Professors Syrett and Cooke continue to provide us with a meticulous text, and are to be particularly felicitated upon these last two volumes, which involve some especially taxing scholarly problems and a good deal of editorial ingenuity. Their annotations are erudite and illuminating, if terse, and demonstrate a capacity to distinguish between the trivial and the significant.

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Repercussions from Monticello

"Jefferson and the Ordeal of Liberty," by Dumas Malone *(Little, Brown. 545 pp. $7.50), recalls a time during the eighteenth century when name-calling, allegations of guilt by association, and the like were as prevalent as their counterparts in yesterday's headlines. Charles A. Madison wrote "Critics and Crusaders: A Century of American Protest."*

By CHARLES A. MADISON

THIS third volume of Dumas Malone's monumental study of Jefferson and his time maintains the mature scholarship established by the earlier volumes. Academic in the best sense, it not only displays an intimate familiarity with the vast literature but contains an acute evaluation of Jefferson's ideas and ideals. The more than 500 closely written pages deal factually and in detail with Jefferson's life during the crucial period between his last year as Secretary of State and his election to the Presidency. They provide solid fare; the writing is straightforward—not sparkling, yet not stodgy; and each page furthers the author's sympathetic portrayal of the great libertarian.

Professor Malone makes clear that Jefferson's final year as Secretary of State in 1793 was "the most trying and discouraging that he had yet spent in public life." Having high hopes for the French Revolution, he was unwilling to condemn its excesses. He refused to yield to the clamor, led by Hamilton, that we renounce our treaties with France. Instead he argued eloquently for a fair neutrality, insisting that "the path of true neutrality was not only the way of honor but also that of common sense." For all his friendship for France, he acted firmly toward Genêt, the truculent French minister. To Madison he wrote that Genêt "renders my position immensely difficult." When the incorrigible minister became a menace to peace, Jefferson got rid of him without worsening our relations with France. Professor Malone stresses the fact that Jefferson achieved his goal of fair neutrality with an astuteness softened by sympathy.

For the next three years Jefferson remained in Monticello, restoring his neglected farm lands and constructing his famous home. To Madison he wrote, "I would not give up my own retirement for the empire of the universe." Yet his numerous friends kept him abreast of developments in Philadelphia and Paris. He was chagrined to learn that Washington had come under the influence of Hamilton and no longer observed the neutrality he had striven so hard to achieve. Fair and judicious in his views when holding public office, he now reacted emotionally to events that displeased him. When he was apprised of the content of Jay's Treaty, he condemned it as "an ignominious surrender," since "acquiescence under insult is not the way to escape war."

—*From the book*
"The providential detection."

In the 1796 campaign Jefferson's partisans made him their candidate for the Presidency because they knew that no other Republican could stand up against John Adams. Loath to return to public life, Jefferson did little to combat the abuse and backbiting of his Federalist detractors and was genuinely pleased when Adams won and he had only to preside over the Senate in the ineffectual role of Vice President.

During the next four years Jefferson was deeply perturbed by events that violated his cherished "spirit of 1776." He saw the Federalists, inimical to Revolutionary France as we are to Communist Russia, exploiting French excesses to gain control of Congress. He became fearful when they played up the XYZ Affair to bring the country to the brink of war with France. As the leader of the Republicans he fought back with the only means at his disposal: letters to his friends in and out of Congress preaching peace and defending the endangered freedoms.

The Federalists resented criticism and condemned it as subversive. To stop it they enacted the Alien and Sedition laws. Jefferson was not silenced—even when the post office tampered with his mail. He insisted that the Alien Act was "a most detestable thing that would place aliens under 'absolute government' "; that the main objective of the Sedition Act was the "suppression of the Whig presses." To Madison he wrote that this legislation was "palpably in the teeth of the Constitution." Professor Malone well sums up this antilibertarian period: "The political tricks of the day—name-calling, allegations of guilt by association, and the like—were so similar to those employed within present memory that twentieth-century demagogues of either the right or left would have felt very much at home, no doubt, if translated to the eighteenth century."

The Republicans, a minority in Congress, were encouraged by Jefferson to fight back in the state legislatures they controlled. Professor Malone fully demonstrates that to Jefferson "freedom of thought was an absolute"; that his maxim—"Reason and free inquiry are the only effectual agents against error"—made federal coercion of opinion the worst of evils. In turning to the states as the best guardians of human rights, he himself drafted the Kentucky Resolutions. It should be stressed that in making use of the state legislatures he did not consider rebellion. On the contrary, he cautioned against rashness and urged "passive firmness" and the "constitutional means of election and petition."

In the campaign of 1800 the Federalists charged Jefferson with being an atheist, a libertine, and a spendthrift. They resorted to every political trick to defeat him, and finally managed to throw the election into the House and persist to the thirty-sixth ballot before a majority of states voted for Jefferson. "The men most responsible for this decision," concludes Professor Malone, "offer one of the most flagrant American examples of putting interest of party above those of country."

LITERARY I.Q. ANSWERS

1. interested. 2. determined. 3. translates. 4. extraneous. 5. elementary. 6. astringent. 7. pentagonal. 8. miscreants. 9. despondent. 10. reinstates.

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The Space Race in Paperbacks

By DAVID DEMPSEY

WHEN Crowell-Collier entered the paperback field in the fall of 1961, it promised the trade fifty titles a month, thus inaugurating what one critic called "the carpet sweeper system of reprint publishing." Everything in sight, or at least in print, could be picked up. Through sheer numbers, it was hoped, major display space in the stores would go to the publisher with the largest output, and 600 books a year—the Crowell-Collier target—seemed to give the firm a considerable advantage over its competitors.

It hasn't quite worked out that way. At the beginning of this year, Collier Books was down to about half its 1962 quota. The editorial and promotional staffs have been cut back, and at this writing Collier's blood bank of manuscripts is being peddled, at least in ›rt, to other publishers—some of ɲom, indeed, are in need of a transfusion. The reason for this retrenchment is not hard to find. Eight years ago, when the quality paperbacks first hit the stands, customers would buy anything. Today, these same customers are more discriminating—with lots more titles to choose from, they can afford to be. As a result of its own spectacular success, the field has become a risky one.

But even the realization that book-buyers are getting smart—or at least selective—hasn't diminished the enthusiasm of publishers: a dozen houses inaugurated paperback imprints during 1962, and five more have already been announced for this year, including Bantam's Pathfinder Editions (for high schools), the Viking Compass art book series, and New American Library's Omega line of Catholic titles. More will surely follow, the space race will be intensified, and book dealers will be driven even more frantic trying to keep up. Has the long-predicted day of reckoning finally come?

The current issue of *Paperback Books in Print* carries 19,500 listings. This is almost 5,000 more than a year ago, and four times the number catalogued in 1955. And since there are in excess of 100,000 backlist items available, the mother lode is far from played out. It is the dealer, at this point, who has become the critical link in the chain. He is expected to stock virtually every new title that comes along, and to be able to explain to the woman who asks for "The Seven Lamps of Architecture" that this is a volume by John Ruskin, and not the sort of gift item often carried in bookstores. Indeed, the paperback craze has compelled dealers to go back into the book business, and this may be a good thing.

For the pressure to stock and display at least a fair percentage of the 19,500 titles has in itself created new customers; it is bringing people into stores who never bought books before, and the stores themselves are proliferating, thus reversing a decline in outlets that lasted from the end of World War II until about 1955.

Despite all the poor-mouth talk that is heard in the trade—the "day of reckoning" has been predicted every year for the past seven years—there are a good many reasons to be optimistic about the future of the paperback market. A million of these books are sold every day in the year—70 per cent of all book sales in this country. They have brought about a renaissance of the college bookstore, and, what is more important, have been almost solely responsible for the creation of high school bookshops, of which there are already 2,500 with the potential hardly touched. Johnny has at last learned to read, and the significant fact is that he learned on paperback books. (For the younger set, this is not solely a matter of economics. Paperbacks are "in," and the average student today, except for certain required texts, is seldom seen carrying a hardcover book. It just isn't done.)

MOREOVER, by a curious reversal of Gresham's Law, the good is driving out the bad. Not too many years ago there were at least seventy-five mass-distribution publishers in the paperback field. The number is now down to fourteen. Mysteries, borderline pornography, and child care are no longer the staples of the trade, for by an equally inexplicable turn of events the more expensive quality book is gradually pushing aside the less expensive junk.

But the most exciting trend in the industry is the rapid growth of the store devoted entirely, or almost entirely, to the sale of the quality lines of softcover books. Some 300 of these shops are now scattered around the country, forty in New York City alone. A good many are small and arty (a few serve espresso coffee), but there are several spectacularly large ones, too: Stacey's basement store in San Francisco stocks 7,000 titles, and Bookmasters, on Times Square, claims

(*Continued on page* 36)

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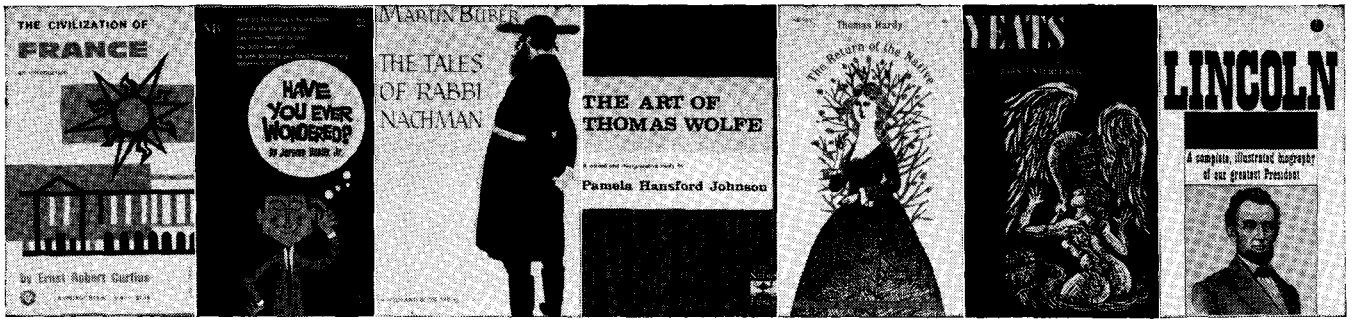

PICK OF THE PAPERBACKS

If you're interested in feeding starving minds, the United States Information Agency, in cooperation with six paperback publishers, has found a speedy way. USIA Director Edward R. Murrow has announced that Bantam, Dell, Fawcett, New American Library, Pocket Books, and Pyramid will prepare book packets, each containing ten titles, which individual Americans may send overseas for the cost price of $4. Books will be sent to twenty-four countries, all the way from Finland to Indonesia. The titles selected are books that the judges feel best represent American life, and looking at the list one can see how varied that life is: William Faulkner's "Intruder in the Dust," Carl Sandburg's "Abraham Lincoln," John Gunther's "Roosevelt in Retrospect," Dr. Benjamin Spock's "Baby and Child Care." For additional information write to the individual publishers or to Books USA, Box 3325 Grand Central P.O., New York 17, N.Y.

The university presses are indefatigable: the range of books they publish in paperbacks not only deepens but broadens. The University of California Press will soon print a dozen stories by the Brazilian writer Machado de Assis, the first to appear in English. The collection is called "**The Psychiatrist and Other Stories**" ($1.95) . . . Meanwhile Indiana University Press's paperback "**The Tales of Rabbi Nachman,**" by Martin Buber ($1.95), has received an award for distinctive cover design from the American Institute of Graphic Arts (see cover strip above) . . . And the Illinois State Penitentiary in Joliet has adopted the University of Michigan paperback edition of Immanuel Kant's "**Education**" ($1.35) for use in its teaching program. Now if only they don't take that "categorical imperative" too seriously. . . .

What's New: We thought it never happened any more: Norman Ford strolled into the office of Doubleday, so we're told, carrying a manuscript called "**The Black, the Gray, and the Gold.**" He went home and waited. Sure enough, without benefit of agents, famous name, or letters of introduction from someone great, his book was accepted. Bantam is now releasing the paperback edition (75¢) of this behind-the-scenes story of the cheating scandal at West Point. . . . *SR*'s Jerome Beatty, Jr., of TRADE WINDS fame is a sort of modern Answer Man. His new book, "**Have You Ever Wondered?**" (Macfadden, 35¢), asks and answers hundreds of questions we never even thought of, like what's the width of railroad tracks (4′ 8½″), or how much is the lion's share (*all* of it). . . .

—ROLLENE W. SAAL.

FICTION

There is a current in the mainstream of English fiction that supports writers like Scott, Dickens, Hardy, and Conrad; it's parallel to but separate from the one that sustains Jane Austen, George Eliot, and Henry James. Both run over a rockbed of hard morality, but in the first there is the romantic, the melodramatic, a packing in of incident. Dickens's "**Dombey and Son**" (Premier, 95¢) surely belongs here. In addition, it's very much a novel of its time, the age of industrialization, and as such is a forerunner of Hardy's "The Mayor of Casterbridge" and the novels of Arnold Bennett. Hardy's "**The Return of the Native**" (Collier, 65¢) gloomily surveys, in cinemascopic panorama, Egdon Heath, where poor but Olympian Eustacia Vye meets such men as solid Diggory Venn, brave Clym Yeobright, and weak Damon Wildeve.

Joseph Conrad had the secret of combining critical dramatic incident with profound moral concern. This is apparent in "**Lord Jim**" (Collier, 65¢), that forlorn tale of the frustration of a good and honest youth who might have been just a little better. "**Typhoon and Other Tales**" (Signet, 75¢) reveals the range of Conrad's achievement in the short novel, from "The Nigger of the Narcissus" (1897) to "The Shadow Line" (1916).

One has only to read a few pages of Stendhal's "**The Charterhouse of Parma,**" translated by C. K. Scott-Moncrieff (Signet, 75¢), to recognize the French antecedents of this tradition. Morality here is delivered tongue in cheek; irreverent, perceptive, and at times deeply moving, Stendhal stands for the government of love and the love of government. His dashing hero Fabrizio devotes himself to mistresses and ambitions until the two merge.

Among contemporary novels recently published is Walter van Tilburg Clark's "**The City of Trembling Leaves**" (Popular, 95¢). It has been a long time since I read it, but I can recall that the aspirations and struggles of one Timothy Hazard moved me strongly. Alan Paton's "**Too Late the Phalarope**" (Scribners, $1.45) seethes with the anguish of South Africa and the powerful story of Pieter van Vleerenden, who dared defy the "iron law" to his and everyone else's destruction. C. P. Snow's "**Strangers and Brothers**" (Scribners, $1.45) is easily one of the most successful in the series of novels that takes its name from this one. It's here that we meet Lewis Eliot in his formative years, are introduced to the princely Roy Calvert, and watch the painful disgrace of George Passant and the blighting of a brilliant career.

THE LITERARY LIFE

In a letter to Edmund Gosse, Robert Louis Stevenson wrote, "I like biogra-

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phy far better than fiction myself; fiction is too free. In biography you have your little handful of facts like bits of a puzzle, and you sit and think, and fit 'em together this way and that, and get up and lay 'em down and say damn, and go out for a walk and it's real soothing; and when done, gives an idea of finish to the writer that is very peaceful."

In his biography of RLS, **"Voyage to Windward"** (Apollo, $2.50), J. C. Furnas took the "bits of a puzzle" and pieced out an absorbing and comprehensive life story of the man who wrote such varied works as "A Child's Garden of Verses," "The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde," and "Treasure Island."

Like Stevenson, the Reverend Charles Lutwidge Dodgson was an improbable candidate for the role of writer of children's stories. In her biography **"The Life of Lewis Carroll"** (Collier, 95¢), Florence Becker Lennon dwells lengthily and ably on the psychological factors that led the modest mathematician to flee fractions for fantasy.

Joan Bennett's **"George Eliot: Her Mind and Her Art"** (Cambridge, $1.45) is another literary study that probes an author's motivations. Critics have maintained that Eliot's best works were her early ones, written before she formed her illicit (later legalized by marriage) relationship with George Lewes. The influence of Lewes, and especially her own feelings of doubt or guilt, are explored in interesting detail.

Yet another woman novelist's life is revealingly explicated in Frederick P. W. McDowell's **"Ellen Glasgow and the Ironic Art of Fiction"** (University of Wisconsin, $1.95). The author writes convincingly about Glasgow's importance in American letters and her role in our Southern literary tradition.

British novelist and critic Pamela Hansford Johnson (Mrs. C. P. Snow in private life) is the author of **"The Art of Thomas Wolfe"** (Scribners, $1.25), a slight but interesting interpretation that neatly distinguishes between the novelist and his hero-narrator.

One of the most extensive series of literary biography is Evergreen Pilot Books, devoted to brief introductory studies of various American, English, and European writers. The newest releases give some notion of the series's range: Douglas Grant's **"Mark Twain,"** S. L. Goldberg's **"James Joyce,"** G. Wilson Knight's **"Henrik Ibsen,"** and P. H. Butter's **"Edwin Muir"** (95¢ each).

Twentieth Century Views is Spectrum's series presenting contemporary critical essays on major literary figures. The new titles are **"Ben Jonson,"** edited by Jonas A. Barish, and **"Yeats,"** edited by John Unterecker ($1.95 each); they include commentary by such distinguished men of letters as T. S. Eliot, Allen Tate, and Edmund Wilson.

THE GALLIC SCENE

The French, how they fascinate us! Their history, art, literature, and culture are a constant source of inspiration and industry. Ernst Robert Curtius's **"The Civilization of France"** (Vintage, $1.45) marks the glories of their past and points a way for our understanding of their often confusing present.

Third in Henry Osborn Taylor's massive five-volume "Thought and Expression in the Sixteenth Century" is **"The French Mind"** (Collier, 95¢). It's a trenchant survey of the French expression of Renaissance ideas, with special reference to such key figures as Montaigne, Rabelais, and Calvin.

In **"Richelieu and the French Monarchy"** (Collier, $1.50), C. V. Wedgwood tells a graceful tale of intrigue and power-play on a grand scale. It was the Cardinal, First Minister of France for eighteen years (1624-1642), who secured the monarchy. This is an admirable political portrait.

Jean-Paul Sartre's **"Literature and Existentialism"** (Citadel, $1.75) is the classic statement on the writer *engagé*, involved in and concerned about his society. In its own way it is perhaps as much a picture of "The French Mind" as Taylor's more formidable work.

Born in 1958, when France was suffering from internal chaos, **"The Fifth French Republic"** (Praeger, $1.95) has withstood some drastic pummeling. Written in 1960 by Dorothy Pickles, this book has been revised to include studies of Algeria, recent strikes, and, of course, *le mâitre* himself, Charles de Gaulle.

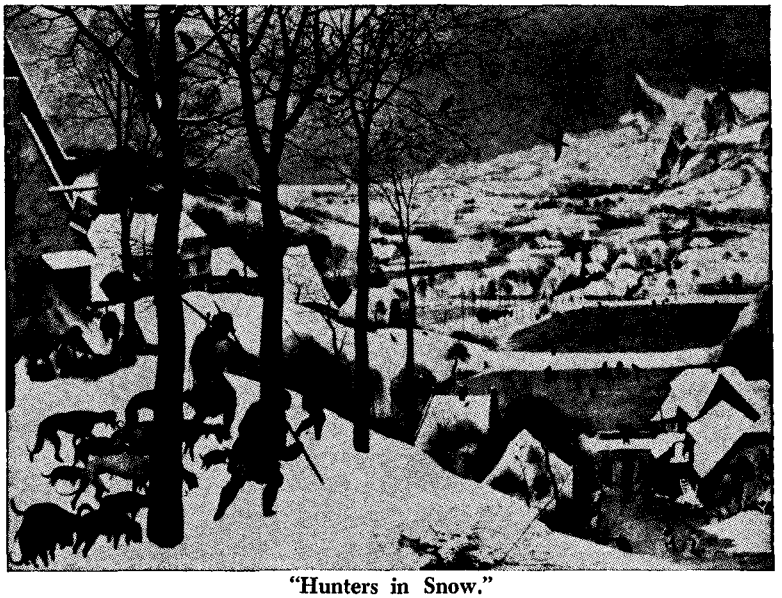
LINCOLNIANA

February may be the month of Presidents, but so far as paperback publishing is concerned it all belongs to Lincoln.

"The Essential Lincoln" (Collier,

ONE OF PAPERBACK'S most helpful contributions is the publication of art books in inexpensive format. And each month yet another publisher is represented with a new art series. **"Bruegel"** (60¢), the first in Premier Art Library, offers good color reproductions, many black and white illustrations, and brief critiques of each painting. The world, as Pieter Bruegel saw it, was a hurly-burly place, and his canvases teem with the excitement, chaos, and harsh, roistering fun of the sixteenth century. Thankfully, the publishers have reproduced many of the canvases in detail as well as in full scope.

"Wedding Feast" (detail).



"Hunters in Snow."

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SCRIBNERS

$1.50) is one of the new books, and it's a good one. Edited by Gerald Emanuel Stern and Albert Fried, it contains selected writings from the hundreds of speeches, documents, papers. All the well-known pieces are included: the Lincoln-Douglas debates, the letter of condolence to Mrs. Lydia Bixby, the Inaugural Addresses. Here's a sample of early (and poetic) Lincoln, written in his arithmetic book in 1824: "Abraham Lincoln/His hand and pen/He will be good but/God knows When."

Roy P. Basler, director of the reference department of the Library of Congress and a noted Lincoln scholar, presents a forthright picture of the President in a neat biography, **"Lincoln"** (Evergreen Profile, 95¢). The photographs, sketches, and cartoons are ample and excellent.

Denis W. Brogan, professor of political science at Cambridge University, is a frequent appraiser of the American scene. Scheduled for spring publication is his study **"Abraham Lincoln"** (Schocken, $1.45), an attempt to paint a nonpartisan portrait of the man who has attracted both denunciators and idolators.

Lincoln is the subject of two recent paperbacks: **"Lincoln's War Cabinet"** (Dolphin, $1.45) and **"Lincoln as They Saw Him"** (Collier, $1.50). The former, by Burton J. Hendrick, is a fairly scholarly portrayal of Lincoln and his official family; while the latter, edited by Herbert Mitgang, depicts him as he was viewed by his contemporaries.

Paperbacks reviewed here may be ordered directly from the publishers, whose addresses follow. Please allow four weeks for delivery and add to price of book 20¢ for postage and handling.
Apollo, 425 Park Ave. S., New York 16.
Bantam, 271 Madison Ave., New York 16.
Cambridge Univ. Press, 32 E. 57 St., New York 22.
Citadel, 222 Park Ave. S., New York 3.
Collier, 111 Fourth Ave., New York 3.
Dolphin, 575 Madison Ave., New York 22.
Evergreen, 54 University Pl., New York 3.
Indiana Univ. Press, 10 & Morton Sts., Bloomington.
Macfadden Books, 205 E. 42 St., New York 17.
Popular Library, 355 Lexington Ave., New York 17.
Praeger, 64 University Pl., New York 3.
Premier Books, 67 W. 44 St., New York 36.
Schocken, 67 Park Ave., New York 16.
Scribners, 597 Fifth Ave., New York 17.
Signet, 501 Madison Ave., New York 22.
Spectrum, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
Vintage, 501 Madison Ave., New York 22.
Univ. of California Press, Berkeley 4.
Univ. of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.
Univ. of Wisconsin Press, 430 Sterling Ct., Madison 6.

Space Race

Continued from page 33

9,000 titles distributed over a stock of 100,000 books.

This may be the answer to the industry's growing pains. Bookmasters, although it is in a high-rent location next to a "grind" movie house, eschews even high-priced pornography, to concentrate on the enormous variety of serious work that is being decanted into the market each month. Once inside, a customer is almost certain to have guilt feelings, for here are most of the books he has always promised himself to read. The result is a good deal of compulsive buying. What's more, Bookmasters is never closed, and makes an ideal hangout for the bibliophile with insomnia. (The lobster shift, owner Richard Kasack explains, is taken over by the "night people" and chronic Times Square wanderers.)

Along with a new economic approach (self-service and rapid turnover), these all-paperback supermarkets have also brought their own brand of informality. Like their colleagues in other paperback shops, Bookmasters's sales clerks are frequently recruited from the acting profession—men who are between engagements and, in some cases, between performances. They are

rapidly giving the retail book trade a new look. My own observation, from visits to several stores in Manhattan, indicates that most of these men have studied at the Actor's Studio. We are getting what might well be called Method bookselling. Your Method clerk wears no necktie; he almost always has on a sweater, usually a fuzzy one, and the chances are fifty-fifty that he sports a beard. He is cool and slightly disdainful, and it is not always easy for him to make change.

I do not mean to be unkind. These Marlon Brandos of the bookstores add the human touch to an increasingly mechanical kind of industry. The paperbacks at present are growing out of sheer high-energy fission; yet it is just this dynamic that is changing the whole economic structure of publishing. Books are at last a mass commodity. And if 19,500 titles seems like a lot, just wait until Johnny graduates.

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Foundations of Faith

Continued from page 30

taken, not from the sceptical Mr. Carmichael, but from the work of an author who could also write:

> A national pride, in comparison with which our most frantic chauvinism is as nothing, filled the heart of the humblest Jew when he remembered that he belonged to the Chosen Race, to the people of the covenant . . . He might be despised, but he knew very well that in common with his whole nation he had a privilege that no power on earth could take from him, the "unchanging priestly office" of which the Epistle to the Hebrews speaks.

What are we to make of this? Compared with the Greeks, or even the Romans, the Hebrews of the first century A.D. appear to us an intolerant, fanatical, unamiable people, narrow-minded and bigoted in their religious beliefs, smugly self-righteous, unable to accept the spiritual message of their greatest Son. Mr. Carmichael explains this in rational terms: Jesus was merely a political revolutionary who failed in his attack on the Roman oppressors, and was later deified in the eyes of the gentiles. M. Daniel-Rops sees Jesus as the Christ, the Risen Lord, who happened to have been born a Jew. But neither author attempts to explain how and why the teaching of this Galilean carpenter inspired a faith of such tenacity that for two thousand years men and women of diverse races have been prepared to suffer agonizing deaths rather than forsake it.

Magic to Meditation

"The Sociology of Religion," by Max Weber, *translated by Ephraim Fischoff (Beacon. 304 pp. $6.50), sees two varieties of religious evolution: the transition from primitive to civilized types and the changes brought about by the appearance of the prophet. James K. Feibleman is chairman of the Department of Philosophy at Tulane University. Among Professor Feibleman's published works are "Religious Platonism" and "Introduction to Peirce's Philosophy."*

By JAMES K. FEIBLEMAN

IN THIS essay on the meaning of religious behavior there is made available for the first time in English that part of Weber's comprehensive and systematic work on "Economics and Society" which was unfinished at his death. Weber, who died in 1920, was engaged in a lifelong struggle with Marxism, from which he derives but with which he differs sharply. Like Marx, Weber was trying to found a social science, and for his differences with Marx he claimed scientific justification. Weber adopted a variety of Marx's economic determinism but was anxious to show that Marx was wrong about the class struggle since each social class has its own integrity and none is altogether reducible to economic terms. Economic causation, in other words, seems to hold for institutions but not for social classes. More and more it becomes clear that it is not possible to understand society without a prior understanding of the material factors in the environment, which its members change and by which they are themselves affected.

Unlike Marx, Weber believed that there is freedom in social history, even though it is limited to critical times. History is the account of the triumph of the legal restrictions and rational order of an institution alternating with the effects of some "charismatic" leader, a man of extraordinary qualities who brings irrational disorder but permanent revision.

Weber sees in the transition from the religions of primitive culture to those of civilization a change from the magician, who seeks to invoke supernatural aid for practical purposes of fertility, to the priest, who seeks a supernatural sanction for individual human destiny. And he sees in religion a rationalized and established institution comprising a system of taboos and a moral order. The leader with "charisma," the prophet with exceptional charm and power who induces others to follow him, seeks to revise the religion by breaking with tradition and yet claims legitimacy in terms of it. The two varieties of religious evolution, then, are the transition from primitive to civilized types and the changes brought about by the appearance of the prophet.

We can gain a better understanding of religion if we see it as a struggle between "officialdom and the virtuoso."

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Author of *The Foxes of the Desert*

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In a sense the administrators of every religion are devoted to maintaining the authority of the revelations of the past and to preventing similar ones from occurring in the future. Consistency is not the rule of religion but the exception. That is why there are revolts of the masses who are "religiously unmusical" continually welling up from below.

Weber was more concerned with the social aspects of religion, its nature as an institution and its relations to social classes as well as to other institutions, than he was with religious truth. In a number of separate books on the religions of China and India and ancient Judaism, already available in English translation, Weber expressed his views. No doubt his greatest influence to date has been exerted through "The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism." But the current study aims at the core of the religious problem in general, and so it is fair to call it his most significant contribution to sociology.

WEBER'S work is characterized by the handling of great collections of facts by means of a very small number of theories. The theories are important ones, but their application often makes them appear conceptually inadequate. His ideas about the complexities of society are not complex ideas. They seem more like an ill-assorted selection of first principles from which a theory of society could be derived. Such a description, however, does not do justice to the richness of observations and the range of subsidiary generalities that are disclosed in the course of the discussion of particular cases.

The influence of Weber has been tremendous both in Europe and America. He has had more of an impact on academic sociology than Marx and may be said to have founded the study of social science. His approach was more dispassionate and was not a call for violence. Weber's sociology had the requisite selfless calmness and detachment that characterize science in general. He wished to understand industrialism and its relations to human society rather than to fit humanity into a structure conformable with industrialism.

Professor Talcott Parsons's long and brilliant introduction to this edition is not the least of its virtues. He sees the book as the best of Weber and as "the most crucial contribution of our century" to the understanding of religion, society, and culture generally. His analysis of its contents is very convincing. In any case, Weber's study of the social aspects of religious institutions with its intuitive insights and general suggestiveness will reward a perusal.

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—H. W. Hannan (Rapho-Guillumette).

Hotel at Boca Raton — an Alhambra of the Gold Coast.

SHORTLY before most of the nation turned into an ice cake I made a personal reconnaissance of a number of sanctuaries of south Florida, a district where it isn't necessary to be a penguin to find your homeland habitable. First of all, as I thought you might want to know, everything is tickety-boo in Palm Beach, which, when I was there, was getting ready for the Presidential visit. The Colony Hotel, that prestigious pad, had, I was relieved to learn, already let its three-bedroom "Vice Regal Suite" for the four-month season at an agreed rental of $25,000. The rate would also allow the tenants the free run of three baths, three terraces, and one kitchen. In appreciation of their cooperative attitude the management had favored the tenants with a silver nameplate which was already affixed to the door.

The elevator at the Colony would lead to the lower levels where guests might run into the Duke and Duchess of Windsor, Helen Hayes, Thornton Wilder, Zsa Zsa Gabor, the King of Saudi Arabia, Bobby Kennedy, and Governor Lehman, all of whom have been house guests at one time or another. In the dining room one could count on managing lunch with gold flatware, and receiving calls on gold phones plugged in at the table. And when swimming in the Florida-shaped pool, one had merely to lower one of the flags at the first sign of thirst. A waiter would come arunning.

Just up at the block along Worth Avenue, Stinchfield's was showing green sports jackets with red and white candy-striped lining and a toy shop had hung out its compelling message to half pints, "See Something You Like? Tell Grandma." Saks, Bonwits, Sulka's, Cartier, Jax of California, and Bucellati of Milan were all ready for the season and so was Estelle Parker's, where, it is loudly rumored, Caroline gets her clothes. Findlay Galleries had dusted off its $2,000,000 stock of paintings, which doesn't represent so many oils if you consider that it had, at season's opening, one Gauguin priced at $375,000.

Besides Worth Avenue, which is certainly one of the mercantile wonders of the world, Palm Beach has also laid on a sort of socialites' shopping center called Royal Poinciana Plaza, where amid splashing fountains and real orange trees Hattie Carnegie sells $500 originals and Bronzini has red dinner jackets with black lapels and black buttons. A branch of F.A.O. Schwarz, the Fifth Avenue Tiffany of toydom, was featuring something called a Playsphere for $99.50; Abercrombie and Fitch was offering its Republican clientele—there are probably as many penguins as Democrats in Palm Beach—Kennedy rockers; and a Southern branch of Schrafft's stood ready with a season's supply of watercress.

The C. M. Paul house, which the Kennedys were later to occupy, is located at 601 North County Road, and its black and gold sign is the quintessence of down-play. Grapefruit trees line the pebbled driveway that leads to the big white board house sitting like a pasha on a pillow, in the center of a green spongy lawn that runs to the sea. Three potted fishtail palms hang over the staircase that leads to the heart of the house, which is built around a pool surrounded by antique flagstones. The President's predecessors, for reasons best known to them and not altogether clear to me, chose to hibernate from the chills of Washington, you will remember, in the military installations of Key West. The Kennedy choice certainly looked more comfortable to me.

Much of the early architecture that influenced the Spanish flavors of Palm Beach—those bougainvillea-spilled alleyways off Worth Avenue, for instance—can be traced to Addison Mizner, a flamboyant and rather informal architect who charmed the money off the family trees, especially if he could deal directly with the matrons. After he built the Everglades Club in the Twenties he was much in demand,

—Sanford H. Roth (Rapho-Guillumette).

Harbor at Key West—conch chowder, green turtle steak, and a look to the south.

Special features on student travel, written by Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy and *SR* Feature Editor James F. Fixx, are appended to this week's travel section and appear on pages 43 and 46.

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India's legends and true-life stories are rich with anecdotes of hospitality—wholeheartedly given and gracefully accepted. When a stranger stood at the threshold, he became an honored guest of the house. The tradition of centuries is even stronger today. The people of India wish to welcome visitors from other lands, and to share with them, even if briefly, the Indian way of life. To make it easier for you to meet them a special program has been developed.

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The people of India are very much like you, proud of their country and their traditions. They have a lively interest in knowing more about *your* country, how *you* feel about today's world and everything in it. Come to India—maybe this year, maybe the next—your Indian friends will wait for you.

and his iron-grilled balconies, Spanish arches, and cobbled walkways deliberately "antiqued" by workmen wearing spiked boots sprouted like instant Seville along the cultivated byways of Palm Beach. One of Mizner's Castillian contributions to the local scene is the beachfront home not far from the Paul place, owned by Joseph P. Kennedy. It was used by the President-elect in the hectic days following the election.

After his success in Palm Beach Mizner moved south, probing the East shore for a likely site for his crowning achievement—a "Golden City of the Gold Coast." The plan included the world's largest beachfront hotel and twenty miles of Venetian canals bordered by homes of the wealthy. Travelers would enter his Golden City by El Camino Real, a royal highway, the widest in the world, not to say the grandest.

Mizner founded his Golden City near an inlet at Boca Raton, midway between Palm Beach and Fort Lauderdale. Present-day purists translate the Spanish name as "rat's mouth," a version which is disdained by the present mayor who, in brochures, refers to it as the "mouth of the harbor of hidden rocks," admittedly an improvement. To the winter commuters who for years have been seeking shelter along Florida's gold coast, Boca Raton, whatever its literal translation, was always the most golden of them all.

The original plan called for three golf courses. Home sites would sell for as much as $40,000. For his own palace Mizner would build a Spanish castle on an island in the middle of Lake Boca Raton and a drawbridge would protect him from his admirers and his nettlesome clients. He bought two whole nurseries to raise rare tropical plants, sold $26,000,000 in lots in twenty-four weeks. The first unit, the 100-room Cloister Inn, brimming with tapestries, Spanish vases, and chests, strung with arches, paved with new well-worn cobbles, dripping with the airs of Andalusia, and managed by the Ritz Carlton Hotel of New York, opened on February 6, 1926. By October the entire enterprise was in the hands of Central Equities Company of Chicago.

Mizner's Spanish airs were over, but they were immediately assumed by one Clarence Geist, who sank $8,000,000 into the resort, turned it into a club of which he was the undisputed despot. When he arrived for the season all the guests, it is now claimed, came down to the station to greet him. Like a potentate, Geist saw to it that no event at the club started before his arrival, regardless of the hour it had been scheduled. He rode around the links in a chauffeur-driven car equipped for changes of wardrobe, soaked club members $5,000 a year in dues, finally left it $500,000 to see it through the lean years following his death.

Among later landlords came the U.S. Army, then J. Meyer Schine, Arthur Vining Davis, and finally the Arvida Corporation, an anagram of Davis's name. Under Arvida, Mizner's grand plans of nearly forty years ago seem strangely to be materializing. Among the improvements are a half-million-dollar yacht club, a $200,000 country club,

(*Continued on page* 50)

LORE OF THE BATHROOM: In Italy the men's room is marked "*Signori*" and the ladies' room "*Signore*," which is a subtle distinction but one with profound implications. In Germany, "*herren*" does not mean hers (which is "*damen*"), but his. The initials "W.C." on a door in France stand for water closet, a British expression the French often use in place of their own word, "*lavabo*."

FOOD AND DRUGS: Some Americans might be surprised to know that Europe is indeed civilized, and that most common drugs and familiar brands of many other products are readily available in all European countries. The only problem is that names vary (although sometimes only slightly, such as "aspirin" to "*aspirine*" or "*aspirina*"), and prescriptions for refills of special medications should be typed out in Latin.

MOTORING: For those who can manage the initial expenditure, buying a car can be the most economical way to travel in Europe, particularly when the driver takes a group along to share expenses.

TAXIS: There is one country in which taxis are so incredibly cheap that even students can afford to ride in them—that is Spain, where an average ride might cost only 15 cents. (Incidentally, for a 10-peseta ride, the tip should still only be 1 peseta.) If you are charged more than is on the meter in England or France, it is probably because of a legitimate supplementary charge which the driver will explain; but if you strongly suspect a large overcharge, for instance because the driver did not set his meter at all (an occurrence not unheard of on the Riviera), take his name and inquire at the local "taxi police."

—*From "Let's Go: A Student Guide to Europe"* (*Harvard Student Agencies, $1.25*).

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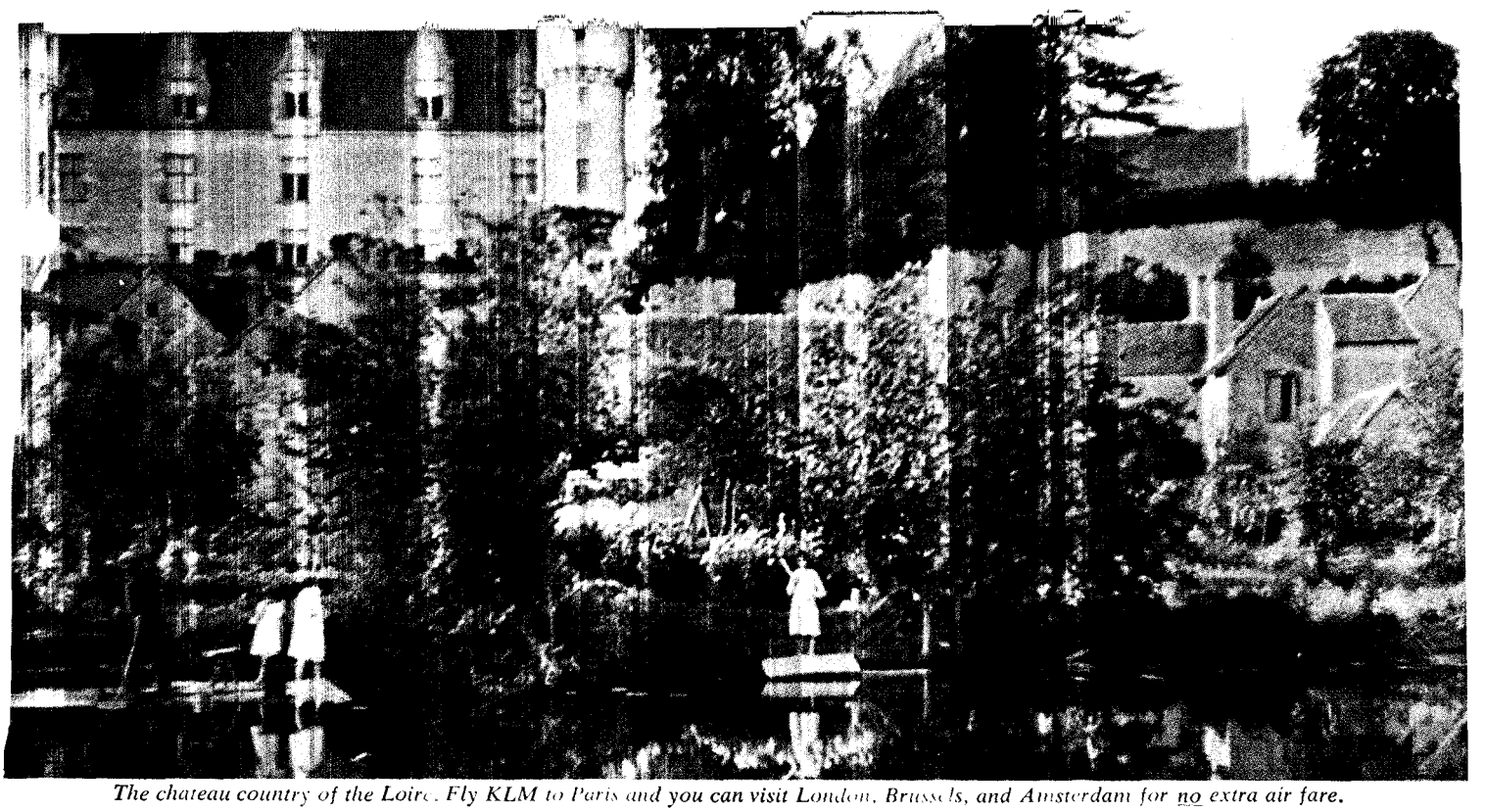

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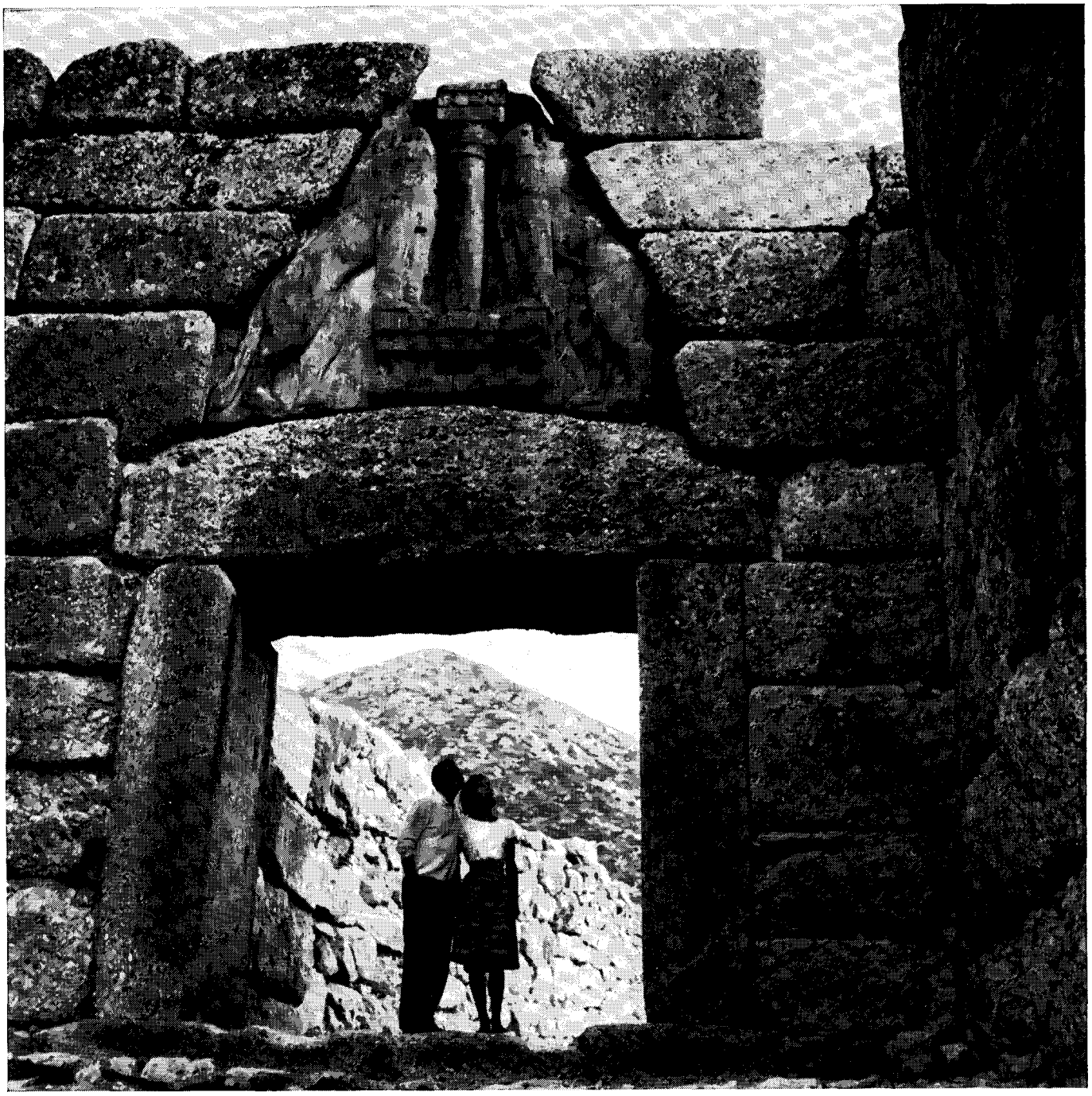

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A Free Trade in Ideas

By ROBERT F. KENNEDY, *Attorney General of the United States. This article is adapted from a recent talk before the National Workshop of the Council on Student Travel.*

WHILE I was in Indonesia last year, during a question period a young student asked me about the United States, describing its economy as "monopolistic capitalism."

When he made that statement, about half the student body applauded and accepted that description of the United States. So I said to him, "What do you understand by that? What do you understand is going on in the United States that fits that description? You are a student and have had the advantage of an education. What is in the United States that fits that description?"

He simply sat down.

"Anybody who laughed, anybody who applauded," I said, "anybody who agreed with that description, come forward and tell me what in the United States meets that description."

No one came forward.

There was a great lesson in this silence. We had not been getting the truth about America to the world—particularly to the young intellectuals, the future leaders of foreign nations. Meanwhile, Communism—armed not with truth but with intensive, attractive propaganda—has been turning them against us.

Forty years ago Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes said, "The ultimate good desired is better reached by free trade in ideas. The best of truth is the power of the thought to get itself accepted in the competition of the market."

There is a powerful competition of ideas in the world today and its significance is both clear and cosmic. We compete with a system whose goal is political domination of the world, and which seeks that goal militarily and economically as well as ideologically.

Our goal is that the world be dominated in a different way—by full freedom, individual dignity, and personal prosperity. I am confident that we will win this competition and achieve our goal. Our system provides 180,000,000 examples of the fact that freedom can be the foundation of a successful social system. We have the truth on our side.

It would be comforting to think that this is enough. However, as I learned coldly and clearly on my trip around the world last year, it is not enough. For the truth to be effective, it must be told. And the truth about America, the truth about a free and prosperous democracy, is not well enough known abroad. It can only become well enough known if enough Americans travel abroad, talk with the people, and let them know the truth about themselves and the country they live in. And few people are better able to perform this urgent task than students.

Just before leaving Indonesia, I met with another group of students. There were thirty in the group, including about five Communists. They, too, criticized the United States for being imperialistic and colonialistic. Yet when I asked them about Hungary and the Berlin wall, the only response I could get from the Communist spokesman was: "We don't want to discuss details."

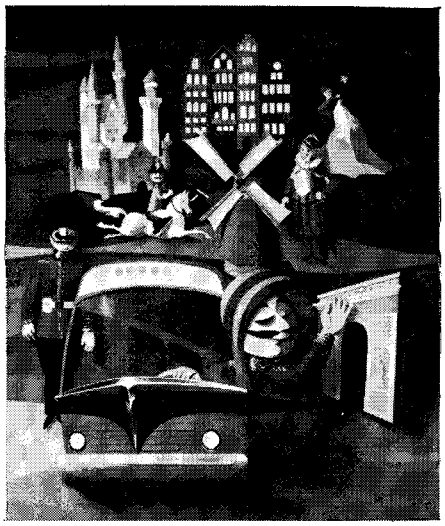
Even more significant was what happened a half-hour later. Five of the students came up to me. They were very friendly and interested in the United States and they talked about the meeting. I had made some good points, they said. "Those points regarding Communism should be made more frequently. You are absolutely right about Berlin and the wall."

One of the American reporters with us asked them, "Why didn't you say something at the time? Why didn't you speak out?"

The response was deeply disturbing: "We just don't do that in our circles when we are among students."

In other words, they had been intimidated for such a long time that they were afraid to speak out, even at a rare time when they knew they were listening to the truth.

HOW can we respond to such propaganda success, to such intimidation, and to such misconceptions about the nature and the motives of the United States? Certainly the efforts of the United States Information Agency and other government and private agencies are having some effect. But I think, in the final analysis, the truth can only be told in person. And it can, perhaps, best be told not by officials of one country talking to students of another, but by those with the common bonds of youth and curiosity, exploring each other's countries and each other's minds—in Justice Holmes's phrase again—"by



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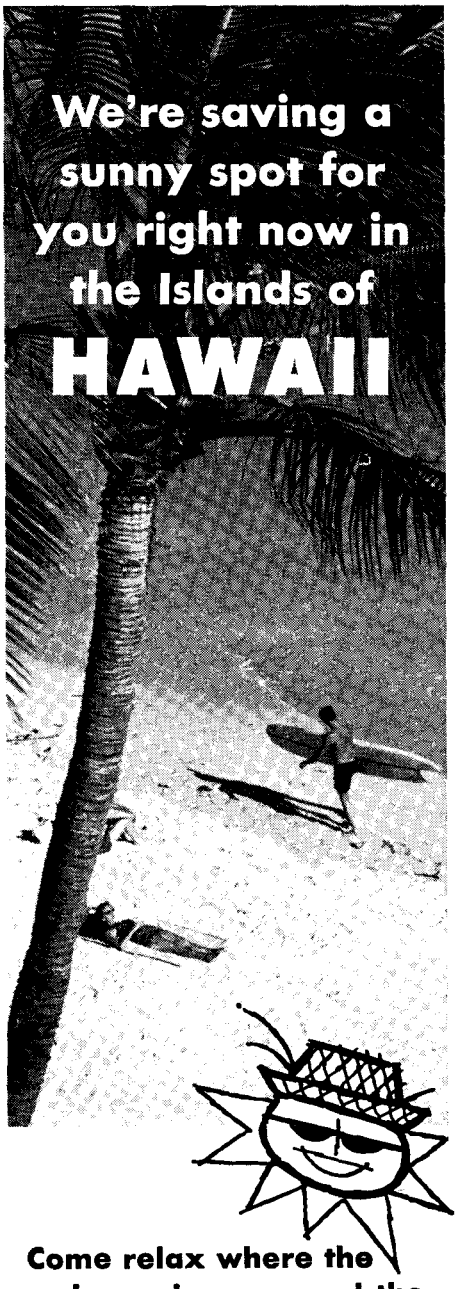

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free trade in ideas." Student travel indicates how successful such exchanges can be in promoting personal and national understanding.

Recently a newspaper editor from the South returned from an eight-week trip through the Caribbean and South America and made a number of recommendations on what we should do to counter the lack of accurate information about the United States. Among other things, he recommended sending American students, well briefed and able to speak Spanish, either to visit these countries or to enroll in their universities as students.

There are vivid and enormously heartening examples of the success of such efforts, such as that of two young Americans, William Crofut of Cleveland, Ohio, and Stephen Addiss of New York City, who toured Africa not long ago under the auspices of the State Department, with a banjo and guitar.

They were given none of the buildup that well-known performers might have received, and yet they made an enormously favorable impression for their country and its way of life. They disregarded all kinds of physical hardships and sang in village markets, homes, and schools, in many cases to audiences that had never before seen an American. Their rendition of native songs provoked great excitement in Kenya and elsewhere. One folk song authority said after a concert that "this is the first time a white man has learned an African song to perform before an audience [in Kenya]." After a concert in Kenya, the student audience followed them out of the hall, singing a traditional goodbye song—an honor never before accorded any visitor.

ANOTHER remarkable example of the efforts of young Americans abroad is that of Miss Ann Brownell, the daughter of a distinguished predecessor of mine, Herbert Brownell. She spent eight months in Caracas, Venezuela, where she was able to know many students. One was an important student leader, a young man who was vehemently anti-American and just as vehemently pro-Castro and pro-Communist. He had been to Los Angeles, where he saw slums, saw prejudice against Mexicans. He also had been to Cuba and was convinced the only hope for his country lay in Communism. Miss Brownell wrote, after her return, that "he wanted to know how I could possibly be a member of a capitalist society. His knowledge of the United States was nineteenth-century—Wall Street, the trusts, monopolies." She talked to this student leader at great length about things like the antitrust laws and our climate of economic, political, and social progress.

"It was obviously the first time he had thought of some of the things he was saying," she wrote. He still continued to criticize America in his public speeches—in order to maintain student political favor—but in private conversation he never brought these things up again. "I think he was reconsidering his attitude," wrote Miss Brownell.

There is, however, another need that parallels sending young people abroad. That is that they be informed.

Every American knows in his heart the truth of the democratic way of life. But a nice warm feeling in the heart doesn't take the place of knowing what you are talking about. There is no shortage abroad of questions—often belligerent—about American life. Americans who go abroad should do so with a sense of responsibility for providing full and factual answers.

IT is not enough simply to send thousands of students abroad and believe, that, because they are nice young boys and girls who "mix," this will be sufficient. If they go to Germany and don't know anything about the Berlin wall; if they go to Indonesia and don't know about the West New Guinea problem; if they go to African countries and don't know what we are trying to accomplish at home in the field of racial discrimination; if they are good-looking, pleasant, eager—and uninformed—we are just not going to get the job done. It would be better for them to stay home.

If our young people are to accomplish good abroad they must know something about the United States—a little bit more than that George Washington was the founder of our country and its first President. They must know our literature and our culture and be able to talk about what we believe.

There is no point in trying to make the United States out to be a country without faults, where everything is fine between labor and management, where there are no civil rights difficulties, and where we have no unemployment problems. This kind of approach simply will not be accepted. Students abroad must discuss our problems intelligently, admit our problems, and must say what we are trying to do about them. This is, after all, one of our country's great strengths—we admit our problems but we try to take action to solve them and face up to our responsibilities.

The need is to be candid about our problems and to be informed on what we're doing about them. Unlike the highly trained Communist infiltrators and propagandists, we have no "party line" in this country. Nor is there need of one. The facts—as opposed to the stereotypes exploited by our adversaries—will speak for themselves.

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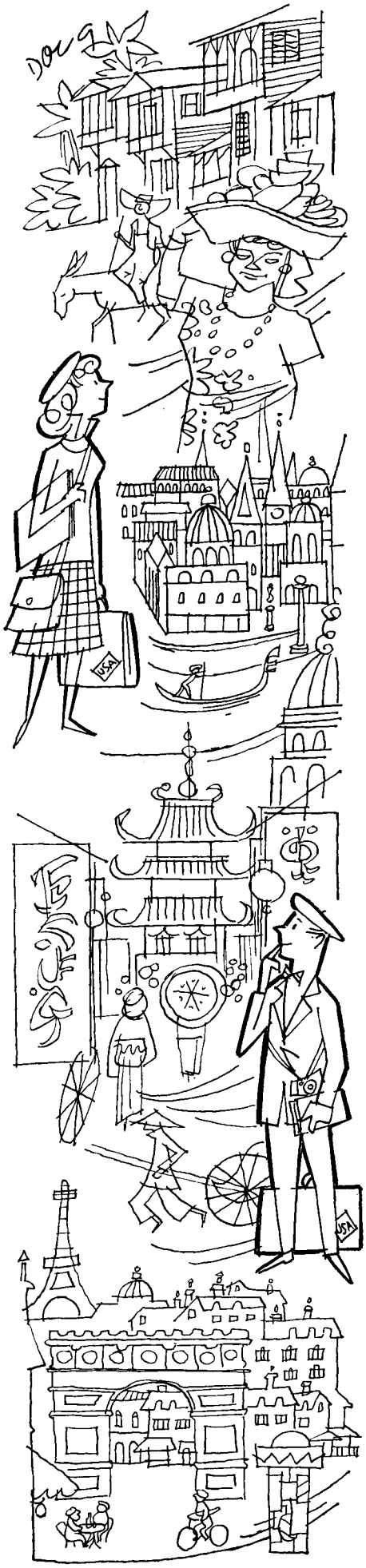

WHEN STUDENTS TURN STATESMEN

SHOULD EVERY STUDENT TRAVEL ABROAD?

By JAMES F. FIXX

AN AMERICAN co-ed, one of the top students in her class, recently went to study for part of the summer at a well-known European university. Anxious to improve her use of the language, and assured by a travel agent that the best way to do so was to stay at a native *pension*, she rented a room in a lodginghouse just off the campus. Everything went well until her fellow lodgers, mostly European students, discovered that she was an American. Immediately, egged on by a gleeful landlord and landlady delighted at the windfall of a free language lesson in their midst, the students insisted on speaking nothing but English. Outnumbered, the American found herself having to speak kindergarten English instead of learning the language she had come to Europe for. She and her parents, who were paying the bills for the European trip, had to write off a good part of the $1,500 total as a lesson in the perilous ways of the world of travel.

This student's experience suggests the kind of pitfall that can sour the enthusiasm of even the most earnest and intrepid college-age traveler. At its best, the burgeoning American enterprise known loosely as educational travel can be, as its promoters say, a uniquely valuable lesson in international understanding; but too often it turns out to be an experience that yields only disillusionment, frustration, and a justifiable sense of having been cheated in the pursuit of an honest and worthwhile goal. This danger was underlined by a committee of representatives from the Association of American Colleges who met in 1960 under a Ford Foundation grant to explore the assets and liabilities of educational travel. In its report the conference observed that "many programs are set in motion with only the vaguest goals and objectives. . . . In order to achieve positive values, programs must be based on clear and valid educational aims."

American educators, while largely enthusiastic about the benefits of educational travel, are becoming increasingly concerned about its abuses and disappointments as the numbers of wandering scholars rise each year. Less than a decade ago, in 1954, fewer than 24,000 American students traveled abroad; in 1962, according to the U.S. Department of State's Passport Office, the figure was 103,510, and it is expected to increase even more this year. Of these students, a large number will go overseas independently or on conducted tours that have no specific academic purpose; they simply want to see foreign countries and learn what they can in a relatively superficial way. Roughly half, on the other hand, will go abroad with a serious academic goal and will participate, whether for college credit or not, in seminars, sessions at European universities, study tours, and the myriad other educational programs from Paris to Tokyo, from Sydney to Warsaw, that are available to Americans. But whatever program they choose, most of them will be spurred to their travels by some sort of educational goal, however vague. And the result of those travels will determine, to one degree or another, the quality of their entire college education, particularly where their view of the world beyond the home campus is concerned.

Clearly, as 1963's record June exodus approaches, it is worth wondering just what the students and their colleges expect—and what they are in fact likely to get. Will they, in Philip Wylie's phrase, "bask in brassy ignorance and bristle with prejudices"? Or will they have been prepared in advance to view a foreign culture with the sympathy, respect, and open-mindedness needed to learn anything of significance from it? And, just as important, will the overseas programs in which they participate afford them the opportunity to discover something more about a foreign country than simply their own private reaction to it? For this seems to be a peculiarly American danger. As University of Chicago historian Daniel J. Boorstin writes in "The Image—Or What Happened to the American Dream," "As a nation we are probably the most traveled people of our time, or of any time. What is remarkable, on reflection, is not that our foreign travel has increased so much. But rather that all this travel has made so little difference in our thinking and feeling." It is still possible, of course, for travel to be the mind-stretching experience it was for

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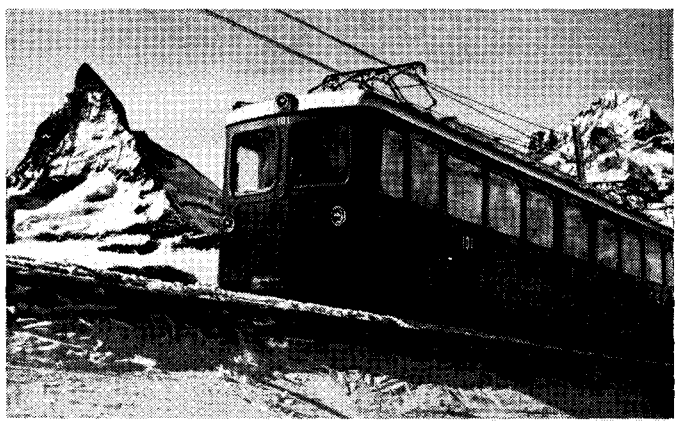

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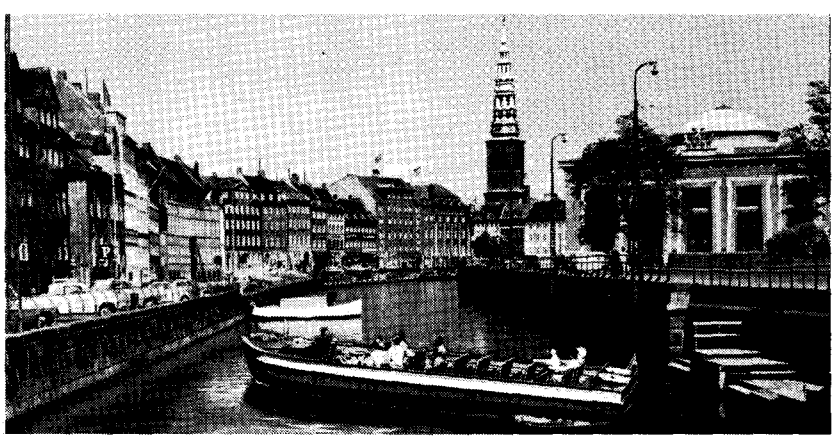

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the great scholars of the Renaissance, but despite the new accessibility of the globe's remotest crannies, foreign people, ideas, and cultures are as remote and inaccessible to the insulated mind as they ever were.

There are, to be sure, any number of organized programs for young travelers that are carefully planned, honestly advertised, and unquestionably of significant value. The Experiment in International Living, for example, has since 1932 offered Americans between the ages of sixteen and thirty the opportunity to live in homes abroad and to travel through a foreign country. Conducted on six continents, it sent some 1,200 young people last summer to more than thirty countries where they were thoroughly immersed in foreign life and culture. Because the candidates—and the families they live with overseas—are carefully screened before selection, disappointments are rare. Similarly, Junior Year Abroad programs, offered by a growing number of colleges and universities, have a solid educational value for most students, largely because such programs are closely integrated with the curriculum on the home campus and ordinarily require thorough preparation in the language, culture, and history of the country to be visited. Certainly few people acquainted with today's growing educational travel phenomenon will argue that it never yields any worthwhile returns. What does concern many observers is that too often its value is undermined or negated by shabby preparation, poorly conceived programs, and advertising that is more a come-on than anything resembling common sense. And when over 100,000 students leave our shores in a single year, particularly at a time when global travel has assumed an important new dimension, any inadequacies are cause for concern.

PART of the trouble arises from the very newness of large-scale educational travel. In the years since World War II, several factors have combined to give massive momentum to the U.S. travel boom, among them the large numbers of veterans who have been abroad, the revolution in transportation, and the fresh interest in international affairs. Eager to go overseas, students often depart scarcely knowing where they are going or why, and in too many cases they have a blissful confidence that they can somehow "pick up" the language when they get there. This notion has been sharply criticized by Stephen A. Freeman, director of language schools at Middlebury College, who says, "It is perfectly possible for a student who knows no foreign language to live in a home in a foreign country and learn with difficulty after three weeks how to ask for the salt at table, but I see hardly any possibility of mature discussion of ideas until after six months of intensive language practice have passed. Without a working knowledge of the foreign language, the student will be isolated; his program must be based upon an island in the foreign culture. . . ."

Advertising has done little to foster the idea that travel is serious work that requires a large measure of effort if it is to be anything more than mere sightseeing. Particularly for the student not specifically engaged in formal courses of overseas study, the result is too often a journey that may cover a lot of ground but leads nowhere and takes him no closer than 35-millimeter camera range to anything that is not distinctly American. Prepackaged tours insure that he will never get far from the superhighways of tourism, his traveling companions are almost invariably Americans, and if he should nevertheless become inexplicably homesick, there is always a Hilton Hotel close at hand—each one of which, in the words of their founder, is a "little America." As Boorstin remarks in a perceptive chapter entitled "From Traveler to Tourist: The Lost Art of Travel": "The traveler used to go about the world to encounter the natives. A function of the travel agencies now is to prevent this encounter. They are always devising efficient new ways of insulating the tourist from the travel world." A glance at one newspaper's travel section is enough to establish the theme. There, among drawings and photographs depicting the appealing exotica of foreign lands, the reader will find such siren songs as: "Why not travel with others like yourself?" . . . "Everything is planned down to the last detail. . . . All you have to do is pack your bag!" . . . "savor the high spots with a most congenial group." It is no wonder, as Boorstin points out, that so many American travelers, once back in the United States, spend more time describing the Americans they met on the trip than the natives of the countries they visited.

Nor are overseas academic programs always as valuable as students are led to believe. Not long ago I talked with a Phi Beta Kappa graduate of Bucknell University who told of going to the University of Geneva one summer for the purpose of taking what the university's catalogue described as an intensive three-week course in French conversation; afterward, she planned to spend the rest of the summer in France. In her class were some thirty students from several countries, all intent on brushing up on their conversational French. At the first meeting the professor started out in simple French, but

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soon became impatient when he found the students unable to understand everything he said. He switched to English, discovered that most of the students understood it better than French, and spent the rest of the three-week session using the English language to teach French grammar. "The class," she told me, "was about what you'd expect to find in a bad American high school."

The fault does not, of course, always lie with travel agents, program organizers, or poorly planned overseas programs. Often it stems directly from the student's own unpreparedness in the admittedly complex art of fruitful travel. Even the most competently planned program will fail if the student is too immature, too weighted with chauvinistic prejudices, or too lazy to work for whatever potential values a foreign country may offer the American traveler. For this reason, most colleges and universities recommend the junior year, or the summer following, as the optimum time for overseas study. As one student who went abroad after his freshman year said later: "Sure, I had a good time and all that, but it would have done me a lot more good if I'd waited a couple of years."

IT would be a mistake to suppose that educational travel has ever been entirely free of faults, or that there was once some halcyon time when every student was the perfect traveler. In his autobiography, Lincoln Steffens refers to the University of Heidelberg in the 1890s as "a place of temptation and pleasure" and says he met one American student "who had been fighting and drinking and idling so long there that he could hardly rally his English to talk with me." The difference today is that there is a growing conviction that travel should be a more significant international experience than it was when the number of globe-trotting students was only a comparative trickle. And one reason is, of course, our Cold War world, in which every voyager needs to be possessed of a certain sense of statesmanship. For he will inevitably find that those who seek him out while he is abroad are the very people who will ask the most pointed questions about the United States. In Europe, Africa, and elsewhere, he will discover that students have a remarkably keen political sense, and he will want to be prepared to answer questions not in generalities but with specific facts. He might ponder carefully, therefore, what he will reply when questions are put to him in such bristly forms as these: How can the United States pretend to be a friend of the African countries when

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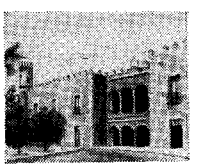

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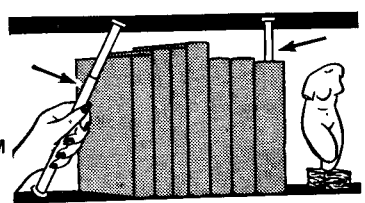

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it cannot solve its own race problems? Why does the United States continue to develop nuclear devices in view of its capacity for "overkill"? Why does the government permit strikes, such as the recent longshoremen's and printers' strikes, that can cripple whole segments of the economy? How does the government justify its role in the Bay of Pigs episode in Cuba? Why, if NATO is supposed to be a common defense organization, does the United States insist on making all the decisions about the nuclear deterrent?

As Thomas C. Mendenhall, president of Smith College, has said, "Just as ill-prepared, immature students from the United States who journey abroad to study will do neither themselves nor their country any good, so the mature student, well prepared in language and training for the level of work he is seeking, aware of the necessity both to defend his country and its actions as well as to preserve a balanced yet critical perspective on it from afar, such a student at this moment can be one of the nation's most effective envoys to the world."

Increasingly, colleges and universities, aware of both the problems and potentialities of educational travel, are trying to eliminate some of its drawbacks by establishing criteria for evaluating the various kinds of overseas study. An important step was taken in 1961 when representatives of a number of colleges, universities, and institutions concerned with travel met to draw up a statement of principles to govern the granting of academic credit for study abroad. Their recommendations, which have since been widely adopted, suggest what types of programs should merit credit and what types should not. While such standards alone cannot prevent a student from going to Europe simply for a carefree summer's lark, they can prevent him from receiving academic credit for it and can therefore be expected to bring about, along with some uniformity in requirements, a greater seriousness of purpose in the student traveler. Not incidentally, they may also make him—and the parents who pay the bills—pause before signing up for an overseas journey that will keep him as insulated from the natives as if he were in a red-white-and-blue cocoon. An increased sense of standards, if it penetrates American campuses deeply enough, may also have some effect in discouraging those tour operators and advertisers who seem more interested in money than meaning. Finally, it may help identify those students who are not ready to go abroad in the first place.

Booked for Travel

Continued from page 40

and an eighteen-hole championship golf course. Nearly 700 homesites have been sold, and $15,000,000 in handsome winter homes have sprouted on the plots.

The succession of owners, particularly Geist, have advanced the Spanish state of Mizner's Cloister Inn to the tenth power. Breakfast in the Cathedral Room, which, with prep school precision, is served only until 9:30, is liable to be an unnerving experience to anyone who is not stout of heart and color blind of eye. Columns swathed in gold leaf are capped with fussy carved capitals and support turquoise arches. The vaulted ceiling is a mass of carved medallions, while from tilted staffs stuck in the walls, brilliant banners, I suspect from Aragon and Navarre, wave bravely over the Rice Krispies.

The city of Boca Raton, which once had fewer citizens than there were employees in the hotel, and which was largely run as a Geist fiefdom, is now emerging as an educational center. The fifth Marymount College in the U.S. is scheduled to open in Boca Raton in September, offering a two-year liberal arts course for Catholic women. On the old abandoned wartime runways, conveniently near Marymount, a new seat of learning called Florida Atlantic University will be ready in 1964. Already in business is St. Andrew's of Boca Raton, an Episcopal preparatory school handsomely installed in Bahamian-styled buildings in the Florida pines. Its students worship in a thatched chapel built in the fashion of a Seminole chickee by local Indians.

Using a piece of the old runway, I left Mizner's Alhambra one day and flew off in a private plane to have a look at Key West. It was, of course, months after the Cuban showdown (or what seems destined to go down in history as the Great Eyeball-to-Eyeball Encounter), but I was curious to see what effect those nervous days had had on the old playground so beloved of HST and even DDE.

I found the city fathers down there distressed with the way the town had been manhandled by the press sent down to cover the Cuban crisis. When four rocket launchers were set up on the beach the crowd of curiosity seekers grew so thick the army strung barbed wire on the land side to keep the spectators at a distance. Photographers shot pictures showing barbed wire and missiles as if the wire had been strung to repulse an invasion from the sea. One wire service carried the story that check points had been established along the famed Overseas Highway, a point

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vigorously denied both by Tallahassee and local conchs. Unlike far-off Los Angeles, where some of the citizenry rushed to buy groceries and even guns, there was no panic buying ninety miles from Cuba's shores. The six soldiers manning the rocket launchers on George Smathers Beach spent most of their time reading comic books, and people bathed and fished from the beach. This year's Miss Florida, an unusually handsome source, who made the trip over the highway from the mainland, reported seeing no armed might along the roadway save for two Army trucks that had pulled up alongside a hot dog stand. When she refused to pose alongside the missiles the photographers replied by refusing to take her picture at all.

Although there are uniforms to be seen in Key West, the only concentration of them is centered about the old Casa Marina Hotel, which hadn't been used for two years when the Army took it over this fall. The sentry at the gate, dressed in fatigues and helmet liner, lounged against the wall smoking, giving me the distinct impression that the Army had gone to pot since it lost my services eighteen years ago.

Key West, which used to have twenty-eight flights to Havana a day and now, of course, has none, hasn't had a good season since 1959. The biggest rush the motels have seen came during the autumn crisis days. The Key Wester, which has ninety-two units, found seventy of them suddenly filled with Marine officers. A similar situation prevailed at the Key Ambassador and the Holiday Inn. By the end of November most of the military had returned whence they came, and the only lasting good Key West got out of it all was a new tower at the airport, for which it had been pleading for years and which, during the eyeball-staring interlude, was built in two days. Oddly enough, a plaque near the field commemorates America's first regularly scheduled over-water flight, a leap by Pan American's ten-passenger Fokker F-7 which zoomed to Havana in 1927 in one hour and ten minutes carrying ten passengers.

Despite the blockades and surveillances, there have been no curtailments of Key West's famed fishing fleet, and there are still seventeen boats for hire, ready to chug off to the Atlantic or the Gulf of Mexico in search of fish. Captains call Key West possibly the best all-around fishing grounds in the U.S. because it is accessible to one of the world's largest shrimp beds where the big fish come to feed. Captain Edward Ciesinski's *Swim Fin* also courts skin divers, who can stroll along one reef a mile and a quarter long.

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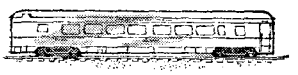

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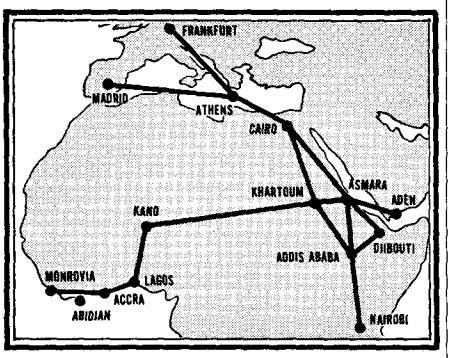

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ments, Logun's for one, there are such refinements as green turtle steak sautéed in wine and garlic butter, Key West conch chowder, and that eminent local delicacy, stone crabs. If gentility is your mood, the Garden of Roses puts a rose on every table. On the other hand, it is only a block to Sloppy Joe's, the saloon advertised as Hemingway's favorite bar. The ceilings here are decorated with billowing parachutes and the walls with photographs of the young Hemingway, slim and handsome in a black mustache, posing alongside big game and big fish.

There is a whole case of Hemingway memorabilia in a museum which has been built into an old fort. It includes some of his pith helmets worn in Africa, stubs from forgotten bullfights, and the front page of the Key West *Citizen* bearing the banner headline "Papa Passes." The house where Hemingway lived from 1931 until 1940 has been bought by a local citizen who, when renovations are completed, will open it as a Hemingway shrine. Hemingway wrote in the pool house and, according to the local research, labored there on "Farewell to Arms," "To Have and Have Not," "Death in the Afternoon," "Winner Take Nothing," and "The Green Hills of Africa."

Built during the Civil War, the house has a delicate air, supported as it is by iron columns and rimmed by an iron railing. The yards are full of banyans and date palms and there is a seventy-foot pool in which Hemingway is said to have swum nude, a pleasure which later required him to screen his wire fence with bricks. A favorite decoration which still remains in the patio, near the pool, is a fountain which Hemingway had fashioned out of a piece of plumbing that originally stood in the men's room at Sloppy Joe's. Having swallowed so much at Sloppy's bar, he had felt a kinship for the fixture and rescued it when the place was redecorated.

Perhaps one day a shrine will be made as well out of Tennessee Williams's house, which is an amalgam of a pair of cottages once owned by Key West cigar rollers. It has pink shutters, is located on a back street, and at present is decorated with signs that say "Do Not Enter Without Appointment" and, for good measure, "Beware of Dog." Nobody need leave Key West without seeing *somebody's* house, for there is always the abode where on two occasions, once in 1832 and again in 1834, John James Audubon was a house guest. It may not be the same thing to a visitor who had his heart set on having a few words with Tennessee, but then it is open to anyone willing to pay the admission charge at the door.

—Horace Sutton.

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MUSIC TO MY EARS

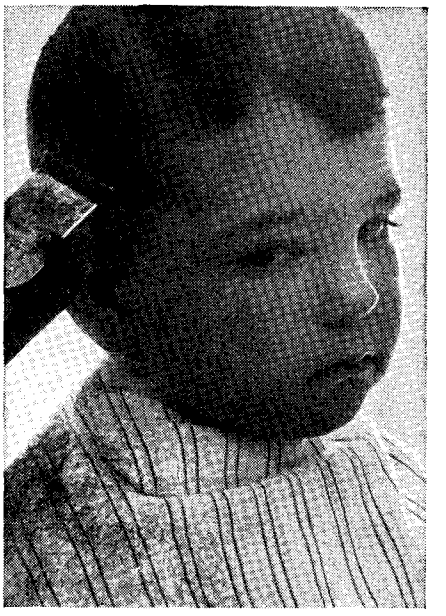
The Rising Star of Andre Watts—Harris No. 9

PERSONS who believe that the conjunction of stars casts a long shadow of influence upon those born under them might consider the circumstances that prevailed on June 20, 1946, when Leonard Bernstein was enjoying the opportunities that came to him after his sudden emergence from obscurity, Glenn Gould was an ambitious piano student in Toronto, and a G.I. stationed in Nuremberg became the father of a son whom he named André. Something less than sixteen years later the inability of a Gould, now a world-famous embodiment of musical individuality, to fulfil an engagement with the New York Philharmonic under the direction of its music director, Leonard Bernstein, prompted the latter to select André Watts as his replacement and thus officially launch what is certain to be a notable career.

There were, to be sure, some intermediate steps. Such as the presentation a few weeks before, on a youth program that was seen on national television, of Watts as soloist in the E flat Concerto of Liszt under Bernstein's direction. It prompted several letters to this department, with the single query "Who is André Watts?" After his three performances of the same concerto before the orchestra's subscription public in Philharmonic Hall, there remained no question who André Watts is. He is a bountifully gifted young man with a pianistic flair that begins where facility leaves off, with the special kind of affinity for the instrument that identifies him as one who thinks and feels "keyboard." The difficulties of Liszt were less a challenge than an opportunity for Watts to show a mettle and dash which, beyond his sure-handed command of the pianistic patterns of the work, put the stamp of individuality on his effort. There was, also, a brightly sonorous sound directed to the kind of musical ends that made a landmark of what is too often merely a period piece. Thanks to the opportunities provided for gifted students in Philadelphia, where he has lived most of his life and is now working with Genia Robinor at the Philadelphia Academy of Music, Watts has had several opportunities to learn that the successful performer of a work for piano and orchestra is the pianist who plays with the orchestra. As a result, he entered into the give-and-take of Liszt with the coolness of youth and the composure of a veteran.

SO much for quality. The distinctions of Watts relate to more than his rapid rise from soloist at a young people's concert to guest on the highest level. So far as recollection serves, Watts is the first instrumentalist of Negro descent to earn such an honor with the Philharmonic. Vocalists, of course, there have been in abundance, for nature's endowment of such as Roland Hayes, Marian Anderson, Leontyne Price, and

Andre Watts—"one more barrier . . . leveled."



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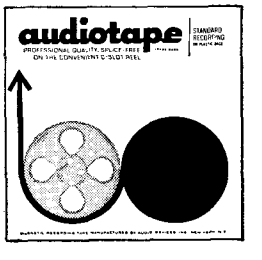

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Adele Addison is altogether familiar. But the blend of aptitude and cultivation that makes for the outstanding instrumentalist has hitherto eluded them. This may relate to the particular blend that has produced Watts, for his mother was Hungarian by birth. All of which has resulted in one more barrier being leveled, one more way made easier for the inevitable others to follow.

Bernstein's generous act on Watts's behalf was rewarded not merely with the excellent effort the young man expended but also with the tangible approval of applause, shouts, and bravos. This was, no doubt, a tribute to his fine bearing and good looks as well as to his performances, but all were complementary to an appealing totality. What else he may play as well as he plays Liszt is for the future to determine, but it is a future that is all brightness just now.

IN a way this fresh beginning was a counterpoise to the finality embodied in the evening's opening tribute to the late Francis Poulenc, a heartfelt playing of Bach's "Komm, süsser tod." It then proceeded with a shapely performance of Schubert's B flat Symphony (No. 5), Copland's "Connotations" (which is not more endearing with repetition), and Strauss's "Don Juan."

The kind of great orchestral playing for which the Philadelphia Orchestra is celebrated made a memorable occasion of its appearance earlier in the week under the direction of Eugene Ormandy. This embodied the gamut of classical (Handel's D major Concerto), late romantic (Strauss's "Zarathustra"), early contemporary (Prokofiev's G minor Violin Concerto), and contemporary (the new, Ninth Symphony of Roy Harris). If the orchestra's center of tonal gravity shifted but slightly in all of these, there was sufficient mobility in the superstructure of sound to put the emphasis where it belonged.

The Harris symphony, which is dedicated to this orchestra, is not only Philadelphia-born (by the commission of its conductor) but Philadelphia-bred. It takes its theme and philosophic impulse from the historical significance of Independence Hall, with movements subtitled "We the People," "To Form a More Perfect Union," and "To Promote the General Welfare." Like many of its companion pieces by Harris, it presents an engrossing plan; like more than a few of them, it does not quite fulfil either promise or premise.

It has the merit of a very good beginning, a first movement that is not merely animated but, in the spirit of the current Administration, aims to "get things moving." This it does brightly, energetically, and economically. Had Harris sustained this degree of vitality and concentration, the Ninth would be among his best. But the "long flowing chorale" promised as the musical counterpart of phrase No. 2 tended to dissolve rather than to merge as a perfect, let alone a more perfect, union should. In the promotion of the general welfare in Movement 3, thoughts of the surrounding were extended to include nearby Camden and Walt Whitman, with results that made for diffusion rather than resolution of the ideas previously expounded. The work has the Harris sound, in texture and tonal range, but something less than his best grade of organization.

Organization, however, was the impelling virtue of the Prokofiev, in which Isaac Stern's present mastery was aided not a little by conductor Ormandy's past indoctrination in the practice of the violin. The Prokofiev No. 2 has more than a fair share of rapidly bowed chords, double stops, and pizziccati, which may, in some circumstances, rasp as well as resonate. However, Ormandy's sense of the violinist's most eloquent speech level made it unnecessary for Stern to raise his voice beyond its best sound. This was no matter of coddling, but rather a matter of adjustment that provided chamber music concepts of balance and advantage in passages with full brass as well as in those in which Stern's pianissimo was lined with vibrant silver. Some took note of the music on a stand before him: what he made of it transcended any expedient.

IN true fulfilment of what might be the motto of her house flag ("another week, another role"), Birgit Nilsson added a pair of Turandot performances at the Metropolitan to her prior list of Aïda, Amelia, and Leonore in "Fidelio" as January turned into February. If each of these has its special share of vocal distinction, it may be noted (more's the miracle) that Miss Nilsson has now reached the point of mastery of Puccini's most difficult soprano role (or, for that matter, anyone else's) at which she pours out a flow of perfectly equalized sound with complete composure and no trace of vocal strain. Moreover, she combines with the glacial surface suitable to this impenetrable creature's exterior a degree of tonal *tendresse* that she did not command previously, and which clues Turandot's eventual capitulation. This is the kind of singing from which legends are born, and those who pass it by have only themselves to blame. Richard Tucker, Lucine Amara, and the chorus were the other able vocal elements in a performance well disciplined by Kurt Adler.

—IRVING KOLODIN.

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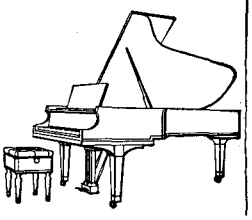

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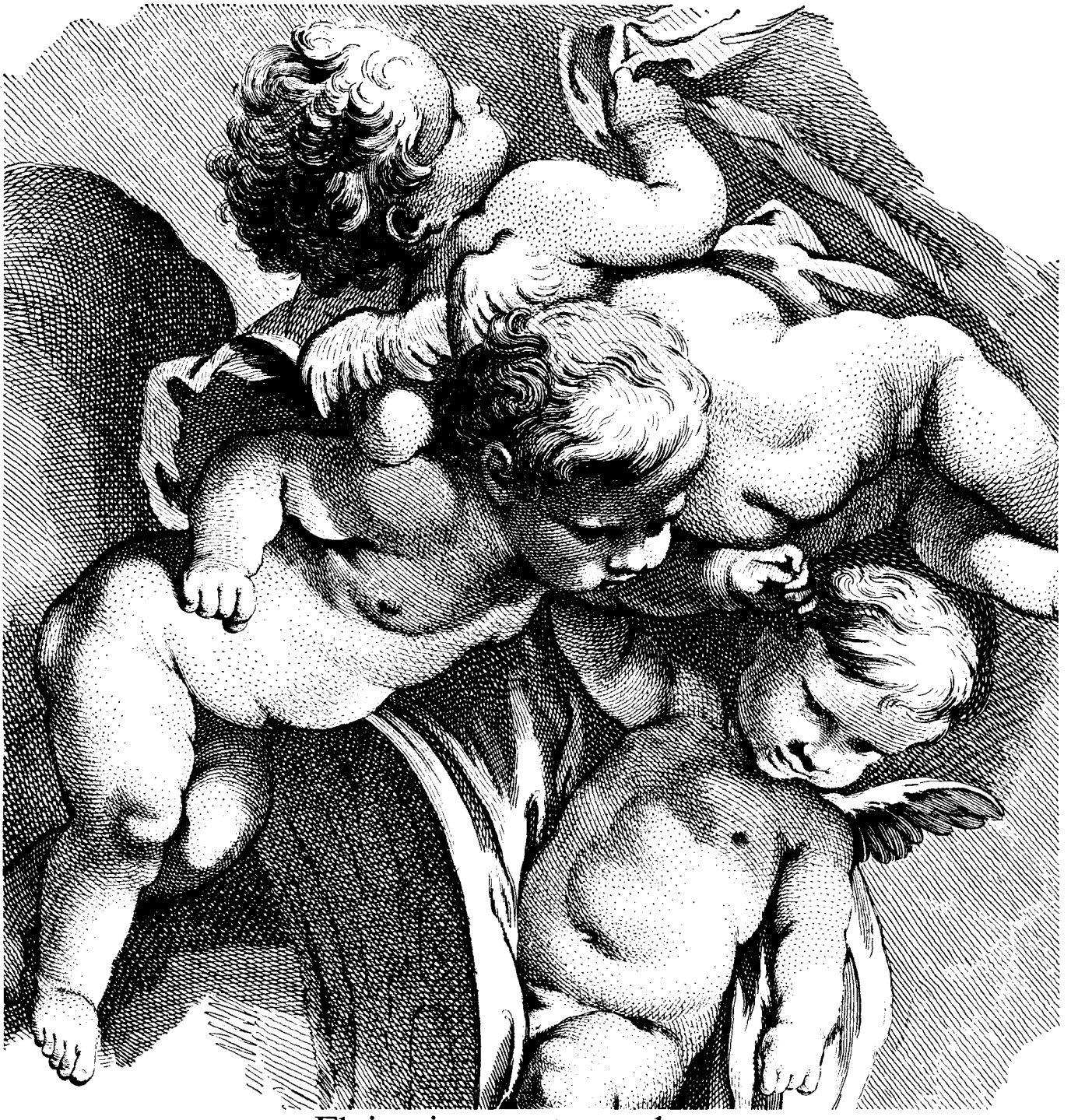

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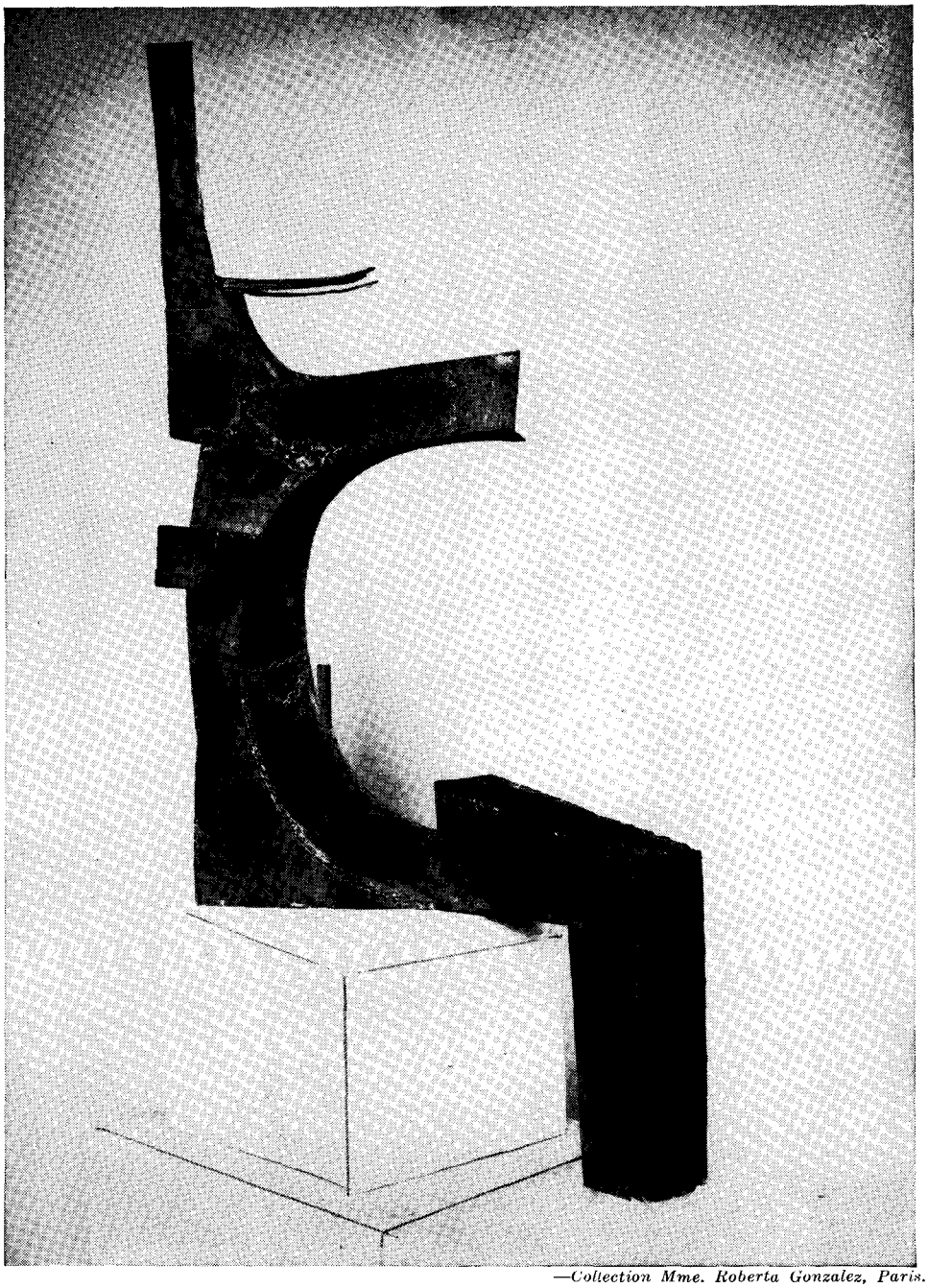
LANDMARKS OF MODERN ART



—*Collection Mme. Roberta Gonzalez, Paris.*

"Seated Woman I," by Julio Gonzalez, 1935

JULIO GONZALEZ, an artist tragically neglected during his life, is now recognized as the father of modern welded sculpture. Only after a large group of American and European artists had adapted his ideas was his name adequately honored, albeit posthumously. Starting as a metalcraftsman in Spain, Gonzalez later moved to Paris, where in the early Thirties he collaborated with his compatriot Pablo Picasso, working with him on various experimental welded sculptures. Several years later Gonzalez made this "Seated Woman," an iron form reduced to its bare essentials. Merely a few anatomical hints are enough to define the figure, but more significant than the subject itself is the way this open design becomes vitalized by surrounding space. Never interested in disguising his metal, Gonzalez was a pioneer in showing how new methods and materials can transform sculpture. Today the process of welding has become as important as casting was in the past, and steel, iron, and aluminum are as familiar as bronze. It seems inevitable that new materials and techniques would appeal to artists living in a mechanistic age, when even children know the secrets of assembly-line production. —K.K.

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Fiction

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hovers in a strange limbo between two worlds. Most of the story is told in brooding conversations with an astrologer whose somnolent, soporific speeches on the nature of the human will and the universe seem to be designed to thwart the story rather than to impel it forward. Some passages are written in the form of dramatic dialogue, and there are signs that the story was originally conceived as a film script. But there is no drama, nothing moves; there are only the speculations that become more intense, more feverish, more ludicrous, until the final verdict is reached: "I only know that there is no God. Only Life, and the Awareness of Life, and that goes on forever, each one of us but one facet of the continuum which we together are . . ."

The second story is about two lesbians, Mara and Red, both medical students in wartime London. Red, who tells the story, has the stronger will; but the cards are stacked against her, because Mara is married to Karl, and Aunt Muriel is outraged, and for some reason the affair never gets off the ground. Red unexpectedly marries a doctor, and that's all.

It is heartbreaking to see a great talent go to waste. I cannot believe it is necessary. The best writers fall into the doldrums at times, but they swim free. One would give a great deal to see the early Han Suyin come to life again, drunk with the milk of Paradise.

FRASER YOUNG'S LITERARY CRYPT NO. 1019

A cryptogram is writing in cipher. Every letter is part of a code that remains constant throughout the puzzle. Answer No. 1019 will be found in the next issue.

GBLK HSAL ALK VFHXBY-
POL YK SQDFOYNFSK EST
XYK BLYP NBL PLMSPN
WSP AFDLH YPSTKV.
AYPR NGYFK.

———

Answer to Literary Crypt No. 1018

Where life is more terrible than death, it is then the truest valor to dare to live.

—THOMAS BROWNE.

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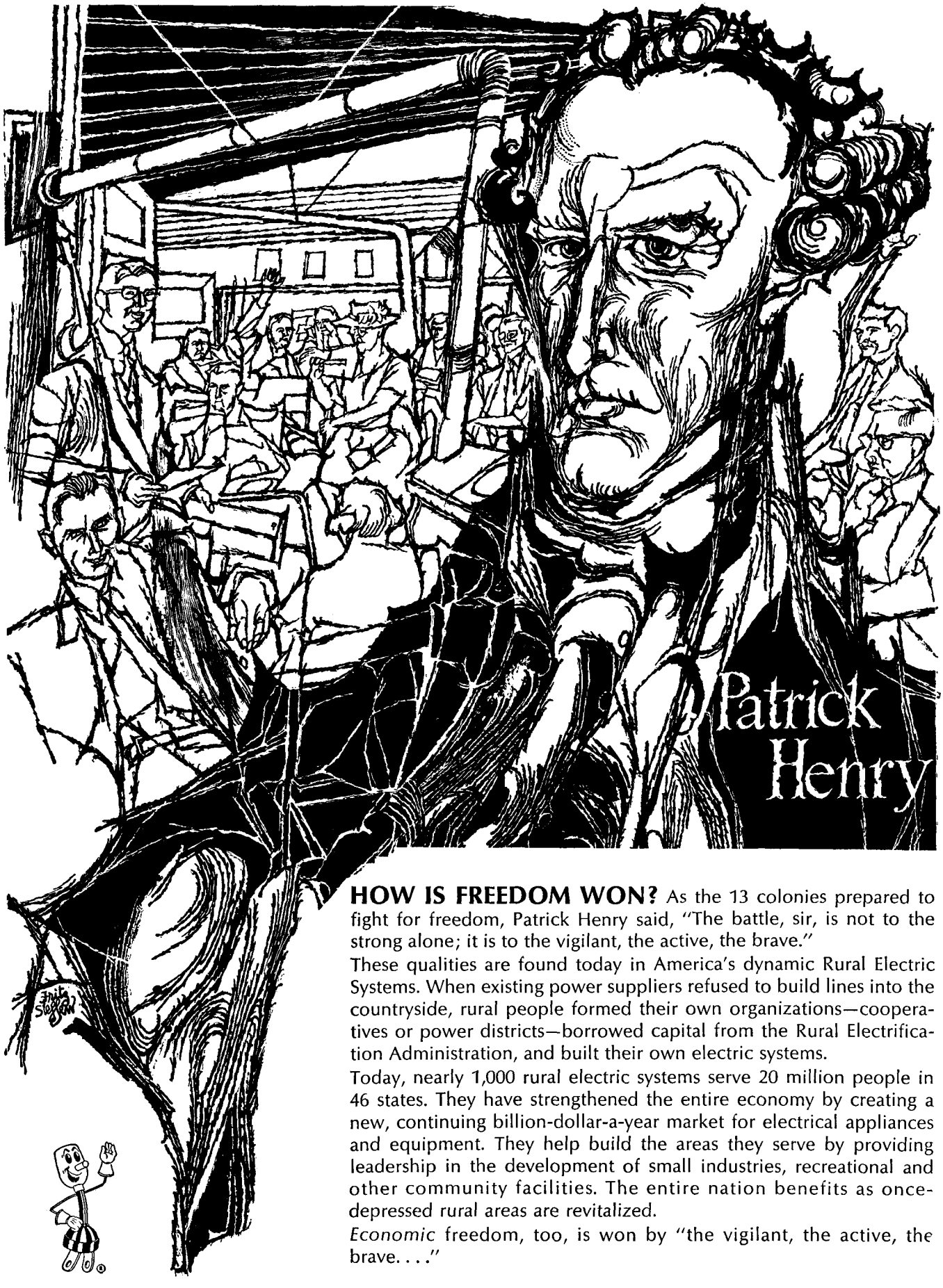

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Dropouts

THE TERM "dropout" now is applied to everyone who leaves high school without a diploma, but only in recent years has it had this meaning. The view that everyone ought to complete twelve years of schooling regardless of his intellectual capacity, interests, vocational plans, or motivation, is new to our generation. Sixty years ago, even thirty years ago, it was assumed that a high school diploma should be a mark of distinction and an evidence of academic ability and achievement beyond that which could be expected of every adolescent.

Last spring, the U.S. Office of Education reported that, of the students who entered the ninth grade in the fall of 1956, 31.5 per cent failed to graduate four years later. Commenting on these figures, Abraham Ribicoff, then Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, said, "Our high school dropout rate has reached fantastic proportions. . . . this is a national problem of frightening implication representing a terrible waste of our youth. . . ." More recently, numerous other commentators have echoed the alarm.

It is true that in an affluent, urbanized, and industrialized society, in which the demands for unskilled labor have been reduced by automation, those who leave school early present a serious social problem—one forcefully presented by James B. Conant in his book "Slums and Suburbs." But the dropout problem is much misunderstood. In appraising it, and in searching for a solution, these facts should be kept in mind:

►There is nothing new about the fact that many boys and girls leave high school without a diploma—they always have. What is new is the word "dropout" with its implication that every adolescent *ought* to remain in school until graduation.

►There has *not* been an increase in dropouts in recent years. On the contrary there has been a steady increase in both the number and the proportion who complete twelve years of schooling. In 1900 only 6.4 per cent of the age group graduated from high school. The percentage rose to 16.8 per cent in 1920, 50.8 per cent in 1940, and reached a new high of 65 per cent last year.

►The reason we have dropouts is that the legal age for leaving school does not coincide with the age of graduation from either junior or senior high school. In most states compulsory education ends at sixteen. But pupils complete junior high at fourteen or fifteen and so are required by law to enter senior high. They are not required to remain beyond the age of sixteen and consequently many drop out.

►Dropouts could be eliminated by raising the legal leaving age to eighteen or by requiring each pupil to remain in school until graduation. But such a move would make the diploma meaningless except as a certificate of attendance and would make the high school a custodial rather than an educational institution. As an alternative we could devise a new type of secondary school that would enroll all students upon completion

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of the sixth grade and graduate them four years later at the age of sixteen. This could be followed by publicly supported education both academic and vocational for all those desiring to continue beyond the age of compulsory schooling. Such a total rearrangement of our educational structure is entirely sound and feasible but it would require changes more drastic than most educators are willing to contemplate.

►Some of the dropouts (no one knows just how many) are boys and girls of good academic intelligence whose failure to continue their education constitutes a serious personal and social loss. Some of these quit high school for economic reasons, and federal or state scholarship programs could make it possible for them to remain in school. Some bright youths drop out because of lack of interest; better teaching and improved guidance programs might arouse the interest of some of these.

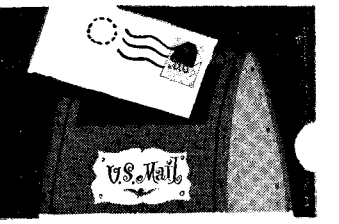
►A much larger number of the dropouts—again the statistics are uncertain—are boys and girls whose intellectual limitations are such that they cannot profit from the academic courses normally required in senior high when these are taught in the usual way. Unfortunately they do not profit much more from the usual vocational courses which prepare for the skilled trades. These trades require at least an average intelligence plus some knowledge of mathematics and science; they cannot be used as a dumping ground for slow learners.

Even in an automated age there still are unskilled and semi-skilled jobs that require little or no technical training. Employers and labor unions could ease the problem by making more of these jobs available to adolescents. It seems certain that we are going to have more unskilled workers than unskilled jobs but it is doubtful that more years of schooling for everyone will solve the problem.

When ours was a rural nation it was not difficult for the boy or girl who left school early to find employment. Today, in an urbanized society, the out-of-school youth can only roam the streets and get into trouble. The nation—but not necessarily the schools—must find a solution. For some boys of sixteen or seventeen a new CCC program might be a better solution than more formal education.

The purpose of compulsory schooling is to make sure that every child has an opportunity to get an education, but little is gained by keeping an adolescent in school by law if he hates school and refuses to learn. At some point the responsibility must be passed on to other institutions and agencies. The schools cannot do it all. —P.W.

Letters to the Editor



RAFFERTY OF CALIFORNIA

I BELIEVE THAT you have oversimplified the California situation [*SR*, Jan. 19]. It seems likely to me that the major issue in this contest was essentially a vote of confidence or of no confidence in the California elementary and secondary education system. Were people satisfied with the way things had been and were operating, or did they think that changes were needed? Richardson seemed to be for the status quo, and Rafferty was outspoken for changes in the direction of academic excellence. The choice made by the majority of the voters is obvious. However, there were many other factors which entered into this election:

The almost unanimous endorsement of Richardson by Democratic candidates and organizations gave the appearance to some independent voters that that party was attempting to take over a non-partisan office. This caused some resentment. Also, the nearly unanimous endorsement of Richardson by the professional educators and their organizations may well have backfired. By making it appear that Richardson was "their boy" they actually hurt their candidate in some quarters as there are more than a few people here who mistrust the educationists.

PAUL B. STEWART.

Berkeley, Calif.

I AM SORRY, but I am simply unable to accept your analysis of the election in California between Max Rafferty and Ralph Richardson. You classify the latter as a middle-roader in education (whatever that is), whereas my observance of his efforts in Los Angeles has led me to think of him as an amiable caretaker of education who is not anxious to give leadership to a school system that could well use some guidance.

I know not what to expect from Max Rafferty, but I have heard him speak, and in a moving tribute to human intellectuality he demanded that we change our school system into an educational system. I hope that he can do this, though the task is overwhelming.

HARRY R. MAJOR.

Hollywood, Calif.

YOUR EDITORIAL for January 19th regarding Max Rafferty's victory in California is well written, incisive and balanced. Dr. Woodring does a fine job of pointing out that Rafferty has really scapegoated on John Dewey and, yet, that he has won the state superintendency with his flamboyant attacks on "progressive education" is a fact *not* to be ignored.

I was a superintendent of schools in New Mexico for a number of years within recent times. Almost without exception, we found that a transfer student from California simply did not have a grounding in those fundamentals which are essential to any kind of learning. Contacts with other superintendents from various parts of the USA indicated that they had had the same experience.

As you know, one extreme breeds another. Thus, I want to underline a point which Woodring mentioned, in passing. It seems plain that Rafferty won because some educational "leaders" in California had, at best, studied John Dewey's philosophy only superficially. They came up with a brand of education which might almost be referred to as "nothing but a nothing."

WILLIAM H. FISHER
Associate Professor of Education
Texas Western College of the
University of Texas

El Paso, Tex.

I FOLLOW MAX RAFFERTY'S public remarks closely. I see nothing to show that he is not a demogogue and uneducated man, if by demogogue we mean a man who plays on the anxieties of the public and by an uneducated man one whose use of language and ideas is as careless as Mr. Rafferty's. The excerpts from "Suffer, Littl Children" which *Saturday Review* chos illustrate this. The revolution in the teaching of languages and mathematics is radical. It has no relation to past methods and indeed came directly out of the experimental attitudes of men like Dewey. It is basically progressive education in the best sense of the word.

"Names of great significance" Mr. Rafferty tosses about with wild abandon, like one of his favorites, Charlemagne, and culture is to him reading books like "Ivanhoe," another of his favorites. The children will suffer if "Ivanhoe" is brought back into the curriculum, because, as I know from having taught it at the collegiate level, it is a painfully dull book. Moreover, it is a book that gives a wholly false picture of the Middle Ages. Mr. Rafferty wants heroes for our children, but does he want truth?

It is just because Mr. Rafferty never opens his mouth without talking some nonsense that he is not to be trusted. On the day he took his oath of office, he denounced again the teaching of reading in the California schools and then went on to speak of Hansel and Gretel pushing their *Grandmother* in the oven. Who taught Mr. Rafferty to read?

Basically Mr. Rafferty is a man who talks about the past as if it had been rosy and as if it could be brought back. He seems never to have heard of change a that change is irreversible. This is wha his own education failed to teach him.

DONALD WEEKS.

Berkeley, Calif.

(*Continued on page 62*)

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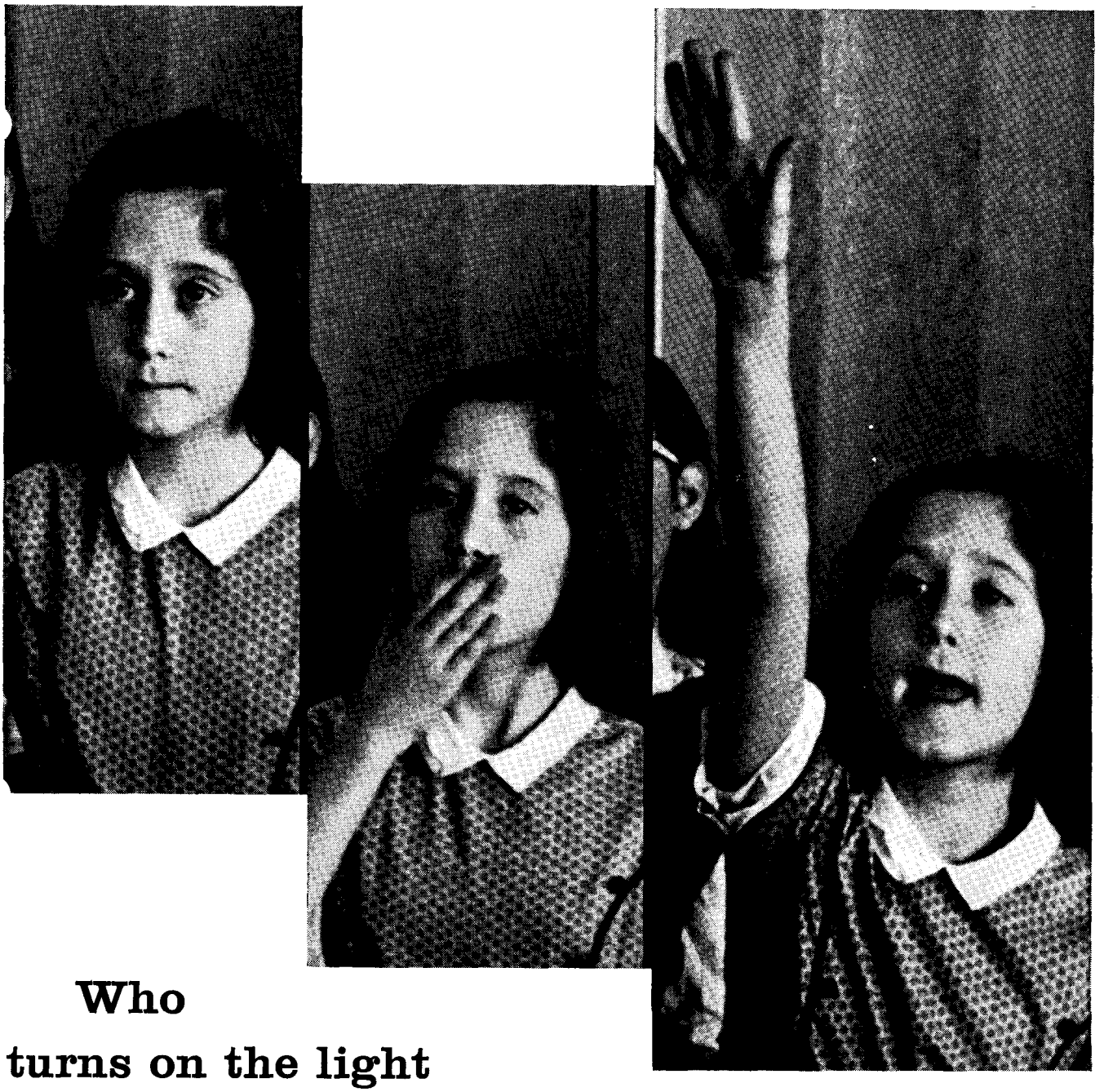

Who turns on the light in her eyes? Suddenly, she knows the answer! She feels pride, accomplishment, satisfaction. And most important, she wants to learn more. How does it happen? What causes that moment of discovery? In this case, the cause is the Wirtz-Botel-Sawyer "MATH WORKSHOP FOR CHILDREN," a unique presentation of the "new math" for children from kindergarten through sixth grade. The "MATH WORKSHOP" is but one of the results of our continuous and extensive study, research and testing of new teaching methods. We are proud that, with the help of new programs such as this, more teachers can turn on more lights, more often, for more children than ever before. **Encyclopaedia Britannica Press**

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Continued from page 60

REGARDING YOUR ARTICLE on Max Rafferty I have this to say: Apparently the reason that you "could not find a single educator who thought well of Rafferty" is that you were talking only to those "educators" who came up from physical education and Pavlov's conditioned reflex. If teachers are educators then you should talk to some that I know.

If you would talk to parents you would find that they do not think well of those "teaching machine" educators as indicated by the vote. Parents could also show you where progressive education is still "riding tall in the saddle." We could show you where "education is confused with therapy" as indicated by the relentless search for mental health cases.

You failed to mention that nine out of ten appointed members of the California State Board of Education openly opposed Max Rafferty and they are the appointed people who can also reject his ideas. If he fails it will be because the entrenched bureaucrats and appointed officials are determined to keep us in the dark ages. "The finest mind of the twelfth century" is the only light that we have seen. We want the three R's and we want patriotism. What is wrong with being right?

(MRS.) LILLIAN PRESTON.

Laton, Calif.

IN YOUR EDITORIAL on Max Rafferty, you appear to have been greatly influenced by professional educators in California. Honestly, there are many well-educated parents in our state capable of judging the relative merits of candidates for the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction. Dr. Rafferty's appeal to parents, as well as other voters, lay in his dedication to basic education. A middle-of-the-road superintendent would have been cold comfort to parents whose children were progressing through school at a faster clip than improvements were coming in.

Although a New Yorker's editorial on the school affairs of a remote state is understandable for its lack of depth, still I hope that the editor is not so far removed from reality as to ignore the benefits which may accrue to the subscription department of *Saturday Review* eventually if Dr. Rafferty is successful in his attempt to improve the caliber of California education.

(MRS.) GERTRUDE K. FISHER.

Sacramento, Calif.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Just to keep the record straight, SR's Education Editor is not a New Yorker. He lives on the West Coast and teaches at Western Washington State College.*

AS A MOTHER OF three children, I support the view of Dr. Max Rafferty in which he said, "The schools exist, to teach organized and disciplined subjects. There are too many undisciplined brains running around the world." You and your staff are darn fools.

CHAR AAMODT.

Cleveland Heights, Ohio.

CHEERS ON YOUR article, "Max Rafferty of California."

Only one discrepancy. Rafferty does not have a Ph.D. His degree at the doctoral level is an Ed.D.

(MRS.) ARDELLE WOLPERT

Retired (thank goodness) Teacher

Los Angeles, Cal.

IN *SR* FOR JANUARY 19 you refer to Max Rafferty's "Suffer Little Children." Watch your commas. It is "Suffer, Little Children"—all the difference in the world in a most delightful treatise on current education.

C. V. PERRY.

Newport News, Va.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The comma is indeed important and we regret its omission.*

THE NEW MATH

THE APPEARANCE OF "The New Math" [*SR*, Jan. 19] is surprising. The sophomoric tone of this article is hardly in keeping with the usually well-informed position of *SR* on educational issues.

ALEXANDER CALANDRA,
Associate Professor of Physics,
Washington University.

St. Louis, Mo.

WE WOULD like to have all of our school patrons read your article "New Math" by Evelyn Sharp. If reprints are available we would like to have 250 copies. If reprints are not available we would like your permission to reproduce the article for distribution to our group. The article would be particularly helpful to us for two reasons. First, a number of relatively technical concepts have been so stated that communication can be established with a lay reader. Second, we have established a modern mathematics curriculum in our school from grade three through grade nine, and interpretation of the program, understandably, is a continuing need.

Our compliments and appreciation for the work being done in the education section of *Saturday Review*.

GEORGE L. MILLER,
Principal,
William M. Stewart School,
University of Utah.

Salt Lake City, Utah

AS A SUBSCRIBER and as a teacher of mathematics, I feel called upon to make a few comments on "The New Math."

My criticism is that the whole story is not given. One might get the impression that everyone is immediately undertaking the new mathematics and that agreement is unanimous. This is not the case. There are some leaders in the field, notably Professor Morris Klein of New York University, who have opposed for very good reasons this new movement. You might wish to present the opposite viewpoint in some later issue of your magazine.

Some of the fairest viewpoints of the other side might be stated thus: Consider music, philosophy or art. One doesn't begin a study of music by throwing Bach, Beethoven, or Brahms out and start with Hindemith. Or with art; do we throw Rembrandt or Titian out and commence with Picasso? The point is that there is nothing wrong with classical mathematics, and the failure, if there was any, up until 1955 was not the content but perhaps with the teaching and a more enriched curriculum.

Second, there is no proof positive tha the "Modern Math" has more applications to present-day life than the so-called classical math. In fact, as Professor Klein has pointed out, quite the reverse is true. The modern math is more specialized, more esoteric than the classical math and so has less connection with other studies.

Third, the modern math was never fairly tried and experimented. How can you tell which is preferable except by trial and time? I claim that it is still too early to tell.

I should very much appreciate your presenting the conservative view in your next issues.

GILBERT H. FELDMAN.

Brooklyn, N.Y.

THE NEW MATH

I set upon a set of sand,
Counting a set of waves,
While poor old Euclid and his set
Went tottering to their graves.

I hurled into that binary deep,
As far as I was able,
All my outworn geometry,
Every logarithm table.

I liketh not your *caps* and *cups;*
My rebel fancy lingers
In ancient lands where people still
Count upon their fingers.

A circle lacking roundness
Hath not a circle's look;
Nor will an intersection help
To balance my checkbook.

I can not count in binaries:
Education was a fraud.
Mathematicians speak to computers;
Computers speak to God.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We do not usually publish anonymous letters, but we herewith make an exception. Will the perpetrator of the above, which came to us postmarked New Haven, please step forward and own up?*

LAUNDRONAUTS

IN REFERENCE TO one of the items in REPORT CARD [*SR*, Jan. 19] I wish to tell you that David Olive of Memphis is not the only "laundronaut" around. Nor, for that matter, is he the spin-dry champion. A friend of mine at Lafayette College in Pennsylvania has completed *500 or more* revolutions in a dryer, several times. He (Lloyd Bardfeld of Queens, New York) was subsequently ousted from his throne as king of the "laundronauts" by someone in another college. I couldn't tell yo who or where. As far as I know, howeve the race still continues.

This new manner of amusement seems to be quite the "thing" in colleges now.

SEYNA-JO BRUSKIN.

Queens Village, N.Y.

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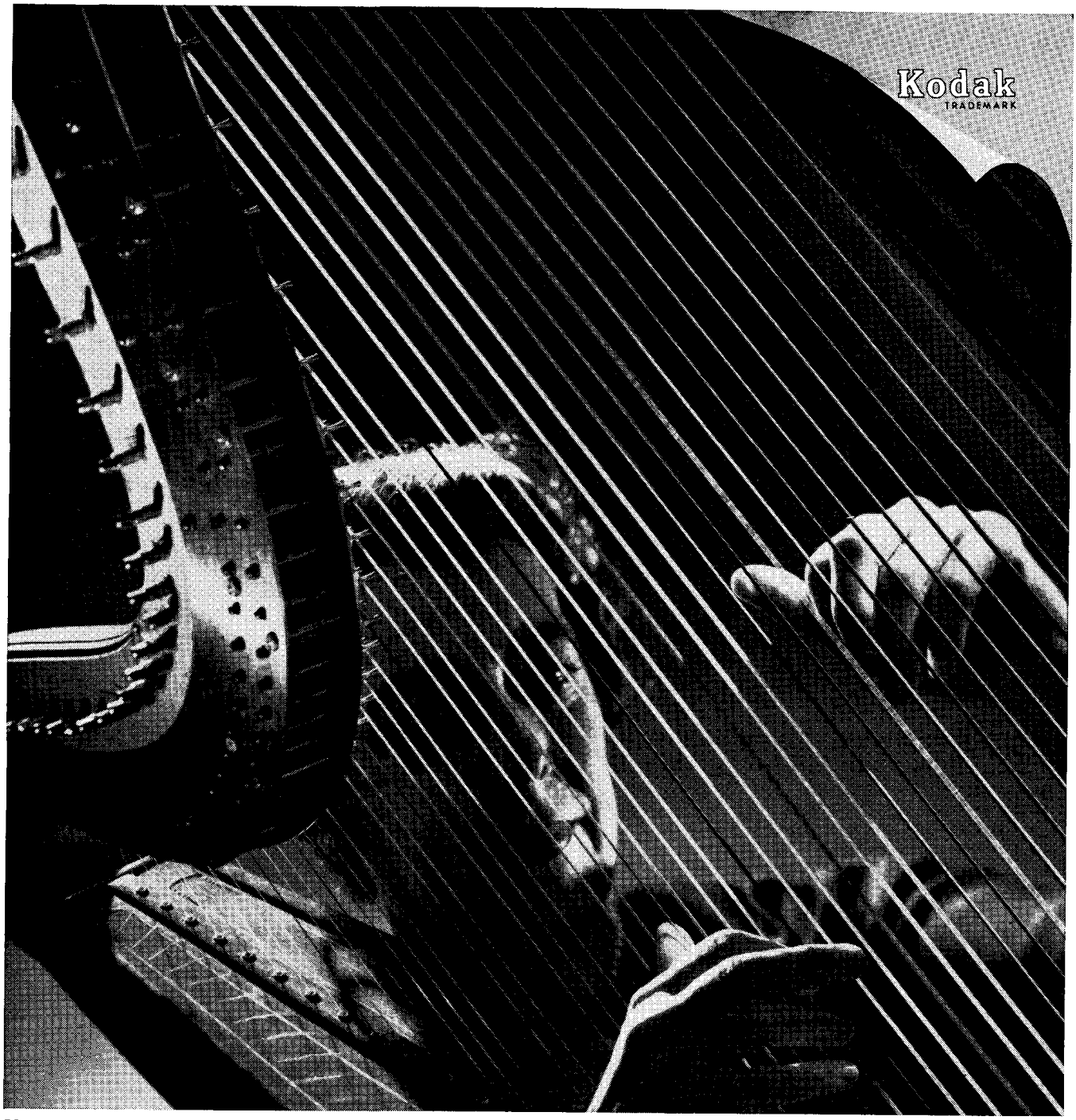

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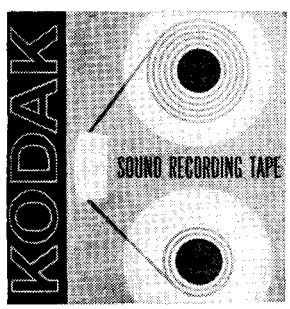

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES STAGE A COMEBACK

—André Stern.

Mme. Anne Slack and friends in the ETV series, "Parlons Francais."

By FRED M. HECHINGER, *Education Editor of the New York Times.*

MANY years ago, the late Heywood Broun, one of America's more acid newspapermen, said that when he went to college he studied beginner's French, but when he later went to Paris he found out that nobody there spoke beginner's French.

It was the story of many Americans. Foreign language study was at best a chore and a "requirement"; at worst, an after-dinner joke. I have, on my travels, heard many versions of the story of the banquet chairman who stopped in front of the visiting Chinese dignitary and asked him: "Likee soupee?" Later, the foreigner made his speech, delivered in flawless English, and on his way back, leaned over the chairman's place and whispered in his ear: "Likee speechee?"

Old-hat as the story may be, it had a solid foundation in American insularity which assumed that foreign speech is not only difficult but odd.

Added to this deterrent against the study of foreign language was the myth that, for some inexplicable physiological reason, the Anglo-Saxon race has a limited capacity for foreign tongues. This legend not only overlooked the fact that even the British, when shaken out of Colonel Blimp isolationism, are known to have acquired faultless facility in other languages; it also conveniently forgot that modern America is hardly Anglo-Saxon any longer. Arrivals from such widely scattered non-Anglo-Saxon areas as Poland, Germany, and Italy (all of them regions where children frequently grow up with a mastery of two or three languages) quickly contract the American disease of linguistic idiocy. The combination of the Fortress America spirit and of the English Supremacy ("Who needs any of those funny languages anyway? All intelligent people speak English, no matter where you go!") reinforced the lack of interest. The story is told that the late publisher of the Chicago *Tribune* one morning assembled his entire staff in order to hand out an important European bureau position. One of his aides took down the names as he called out a number of different languages and staffers able to speak them raised their hands. When he finally announced the appointment, the aide whispered that there must have been some mistake—the man selected had not once raised his hand. "That's just why I want him," the story (possibly apocryphal) quotes the publisher. "I don't want to send anybody who speaks those damn-fool languages."

The world of education itself tended to play down the importance of foreign language study. Those who equated meaningful education with practically "useful" knowledge were also under the influence of American self-sufficiency. Before airplanes shrank the oceans and opened foreign travel to masses of people, and before American involvement in world affairs became a routine rather than the occasional specialty of the striped-trousers set, the "use" of a foreign language was indeed remote. Since the beginning of foreign language study does require a modicum of hard work, the trend toward the elective system led even greater numbers of pupils away from such effort.

This was compounded by the worst imaginable instruction in many schools. My own first experience with French in one of New York's best high schools in the late Thirties tipped me off to the state of affairs. The teacher, a pleasant, middle-aged woman who was fully certified as a teacher of French, was afflicted by so incomprehensible a pronounciation that she could not give dictations at all. The moment she heard

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that I had been educated in Europe, she appointed me to the position of official dictation-giver, even though my French was far from outstanding.

In a review of the history of foreign language study in America, the U.S. National Commission for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Commission recounts how "almost overnight," as a result of World War I, Americans "developed a hysterical distrust of all things German—hence, by emotional logic, of most things foreign." Twenty-two states passed specific laws hostile to foreign language instruction, and although these laws were reversed by the Supreme Court in 1923, the isolationist mood persisted.

With the fatalistic "realism" that often perverts American education, many colleges went along with the trend. By 1961, fewer than one-third of all the nation's accredited liberal arts colleges had retained a foreign language entrance requirement. The rest had given in to pressure by the high schools and dropped the prerequisite. Moreover, in the period between 1918 and 1943, close to forty colleges did away with such requirements for a Bachelor of Arts degree, and the UNESCO commission report adds that "although 85.9 per cent of our liberal arts colleges still have the degree requirement, in many instances it is so slight as to be almost meaningless."

Leading spokesmen for public education in the Thirties and Forties cannot be absolved from the charge of a basic anti-intellectualism that automatically turned against so time-consuming a subject as foreign languages. A report of the American Youth Commission on "What the High Schools Ought to Teach," published in 1940, said the "traditional" academic subjects, including foreign languages, were responsible for driving pupils out of school. In 1944, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association published its influential "Education for All American Youth," which included languages among the "peripheral" subjects. They might best be studied on the student's own time, taking up perhaps two and a half hours a week, it was suggested. Shortly thereafter, the United States Office of Education, in a recommendation for a "Life-Adjustment Education" program, gave no place to foreign language study at all.

The situation (which reflected the general decline in academic content of American public education) began to be reversed with the beginning of World War II. The very fact of modern warfare, with its new stress on technology and on military and scientific intelligence, had exactly the opposite effect of the emotional fanaticism of World War I. My first observation of what has since come to be known as the New American Language Method came during a postwar visit to the United States Military Academy at West Point. The sight of a group of cadets in their first year of Russian study conducting a simulated Court Martial entirely in Russian was an eye-opener to one brought up in the "Grandmother's pen is on the table" school of languages.

There are many variations of the New American Method. But all of them have in common the idea that learning is started with the spoken and listened-to word in the foreign language, without the use of English, or as little of it as possible. It might be said that an attempt is made to re-create as closely as possible the conditions under which a child learns to speak his own language. The stress is on instant recognition of a word or a phrase and its meaning *without* the process of translation. This process of reflex reaction by mouth and ear eliminates, at least in the early stages, the memorization and analysis of grammatical construction.

The major reversal did not, however, take effect until the 1950s. In 1952, Dr. Earl J. McGrath, then the United States Commissioner of Education, did what only courageous men dare—he admitted that he had been wrong.

"For some years I unwisely took the position that a foreign language did not constitute an indispensable element in a general education program. This position, I am happy to say, I have reversed. . . . Educators from the elementary school to the top levels of the university system ought to give immediate attention to this matter."

At this point the Modern Language Association became an increasingly important force. In 1953, for the first time in many years, college enrollment in French, German, and Spanish began to increase slightly. By 1960, over forty colleges had restored the entrance requirement. In the high schools, too, the percentage of students taking foreign languages crept up from 21.5 per cent in 1948 to 24.2 per cent in 1958.

Contrary to public belief, the reform movement thus was well under way *before* the Soviets launched the first Sputnik in 1957. Americans concerned with the low quality of public education, again contrary to the sneers of some old-guard educators, did not wait until "catching up with the Russians" became fashionable.

What the Soviet achievement in space did accomplish for American school reform, including the rediscovery of language study, was to give it the financial push and the sense of urgency that changed a reversal of a trend into a major reappraisal. The passage of the National Defense Education Act, with important support for foreign language teacher training and instructional equipment, made 1958 the year that turned the tide. Betwen 1958 and 1960, for example, the percentage of high school students enrolled in foreign language classes rose from 24.2 to 29.3. Since 1958, 11,250 foreign language teachers have been retrained under the NDEA.

More important than statistics is the rethinking that has taken place as to the timing of foreign language study. This is not an isolated educational phenomenon. It is intimately linked with the general questioning of the starting line of learning in the entire education enterprise. It is part of the same open-minded look at children's "readiness" that has made the age at which children should be "permitted" to start learning to read or to deal with numbers one of the hot current issues.

In language study, the age factor is probably more significant than in any other area of learning, except perhaps reading. The traditional starting point

"My Dear Abigail . . ."

IN THE SUMMER of 1774, when the struggle for freedom of the British Colonies in North America was beginning to take shape, John Adams wrote as follows to his wife Abigail:

"I must intreat you, my dear Partner . . . to take Part with me in the Struggle. . . . Rouse your whole Attention to the Family, the stock, the Farm, the Dairy. Let every article of Expence which can possibly be spared be retrenched. . . .

"Above all . . . let your ardent Anxiety be to mould the Minds and Manners of our Children . . . Fix their Ambition upon great and solid Objects, and their Contempt upon little, frivolous, and useless ones. It is Time, my dear, for you to begin to teach them French."

—From "The Arizona Foreign Language Teacher's Forum," May 1, 1962.

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in high school confronted teen-agers with a foreign tongue precisely when adolescents are least susceptible to "strange" or "odd" new discoveries. At the peak of their insecure self-consciousness, a different accent and unfamiliar sounds pose real problems of adjustment. This must be contrasted with the natural love of young children for the new and unfamiliar, coupled with their delight in imitation.

Observation of an entirely bilingual French-English nursery school and kindergarten, as demonstrated in New York City by the Ecole Française, shows that four- and five-year-olds adopt new languages and sounds almost by osmosis. Moreover, they appear to be able to switch easily from one language to another without being conscious of any real dividing line.

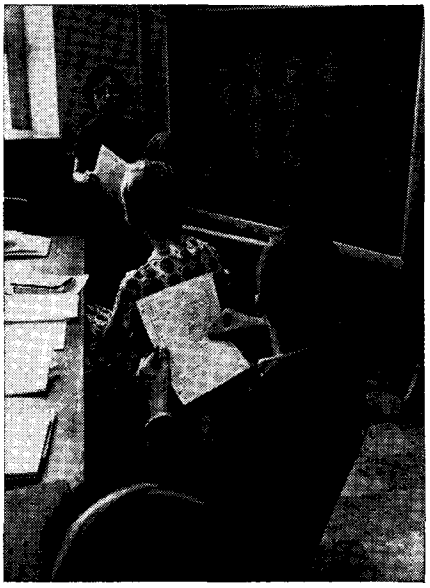
IN 1955, foreign language enrollment in the nation's elementary schools stood at 271,600. Today it is estimated to be well over four times that number.

Quite obviously, the gain is not only in an early start; it makes possible a long consecutive study of the same language, with eventual true mastery. Lack of this has been one of the major sins in foreign language study in American schools, particularly where the elective system was permitted to run riot. An important study in the 1920s had shown that, few as were the total number of students who studied foreign languages in high school, 83 per cent of even these took a foreign language for only two years. Most of the then remaining college language requirements demanded only two years or less. It was left to Dr. James B. Conant, in his general reappraisal of the American high school in 1959, to point out that fewer than four consecutive years of the same language was almost an entire waste. He compared the prevailing practice to drilling for oil without waiting to strike a deposit.

Fortunately, the message is beginning to make itself felt. The State Education Departments of New York and Connecticut recommend six-year sequences of foreign languages, ranging from grades seven through twelve. In some advanced communities ten-year study from grades three to high school graduation is being set up. Such revolutionary programs are reported by Fairfield and Glastonbury in Connecticut, by Hackensack and Somerville in New Jersey and in school districts in El Paso and San Francisco. At last report, California had mandated all public school systems to offer foreign language instruction from grades six through twelve.

The key to a truly successful language program remains, of course, the teacher. This is true whether old-fashioned classrooms are used, the most modern laboratory equipment is available or, as has been done successfully, an expert instructor on television fills in for missing local talent.

The latter case is supported by the experience of Anne Slack, the now famous teacher of "Parlons Français" who has been conducting her television - plus - records teaching of French uninterruptedly for ten years. Last December the school system of Schenectady, New York, where Mrs. Slack got her start on a local television station in 1953, invited her "home" for a reunion with former pupils. The reunion gossip was conducted in French and, in contrast with the late Mr.



—*Ray Stevens.*

"The key to a truly successful foreign language program is the teacher."

Broun's experience, Mrs. Slack felt that her alumni could leave for Paris any time without concern about making themselves understood.

But the teacher problem remains serious. Certification requirements in many states are far short of assuring even the most basic conversational ability in the language the teacher is expected to teach. Only two or three states actually require a demonstration of speaking ability.

Theodore Andersson, a noted expert formerly at Yale and now at the University of Texas, writes in "The Education of the Secondary School Teacher" (Wesleyan University Press, 1962) that there are in the United States some 20,000,000 speakers of languages other than English. In New York City one American in ten is a native speaker of Spanish of Puerto Rican background. Louisiana has about 400,000 French-speaking "natives." There is much fluent German in the Midwest, Italian in many of the big cities, Chinese and Japanese on the West Coast and in Hawaii, and Russian, Polish, and Scandinavian scattered throughout the nation.

Yet this vast reservoir is largely wasted—often purposely. A misguided interpretation of "melting pot" Americanization leads second-generation Americans to shed their knowledge of their Old World language. The connotation of the immigrant as poor and therefore "un-American" has depleted what might otherwise be the most perfect and almost inexhaustible pool of future teachers. It ought to be easy—and from the slum-clearing point of view invaluable—if, in addition to the worthy effort to teach Puerto Rican youngsters English, some of the brightest could be tapped, encouraged, and supported for their ability to be bilingual and their promise to become teachers rather than dishwashers.

ONE real dilemma, Mr. Andersson points out, is that teachers qualified to teach in the best of today's language programs "should ideally have been educated in the same way themselves." In fact, however, "we know that most of today's teachers started their language learning at the age of fourteen or fifteen and were raised in the grammar - vocabulary - translation tradition. We know also that their training has been inadequate since liberal arts colleges have been negligent of their teacher-training function, teachers' colleges have neglected academic competence, and neither has collaborated closely with the other."

Fortunately, a good start has been made to improve matters. In 1955, the Modern Language Association prepared a definition of the meaning of competence to teach languages in high school, and later tests were prepared. In the future, therefore, school authorities may have a better yardstick to test a teacher's real ability to teach a modern spoken and written language. And as previously mentioned, the NDEA has set off an avalanche of retraining which has been growing in size and impact each year. In 1959, it subsidized twelve summer institutes. The number increased steadily—to thirty-seven in 1960, fifty-five in 1961 and eighty in 1962. This year, there will be eighty-three, with an expenditure of more than $7,000,000, enrolling over 4,400 teachers at seventy-nine colleges and universities.

Donald D. Walsh, director of the MLA, says: "We continue to be concerned about the quantity and the quality of foreign language teachers. We know that much language teaching is inspired; we also know that some of it is humdrum and dispiriting. To get more teachers, we must have more

(*Continued on page* 89)

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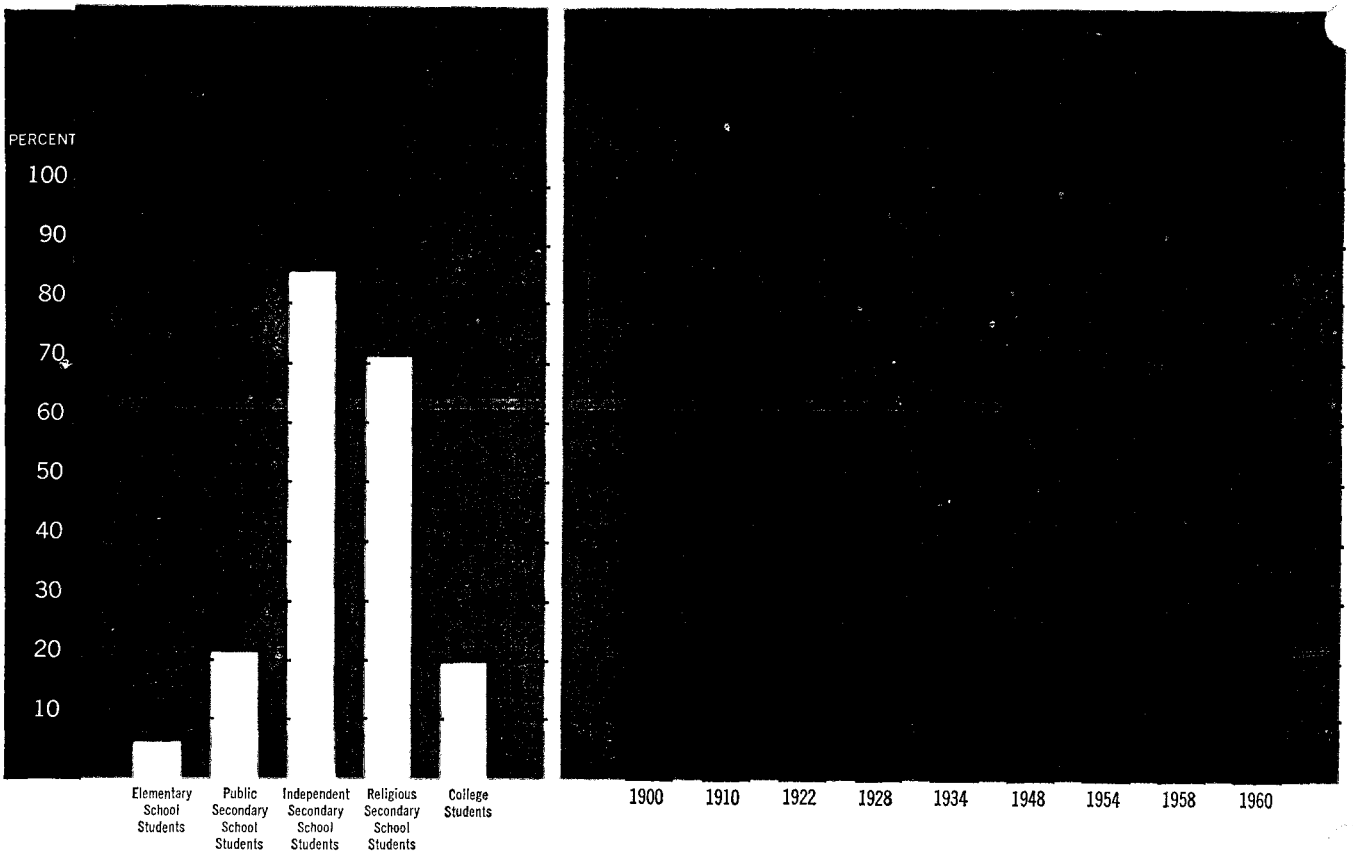

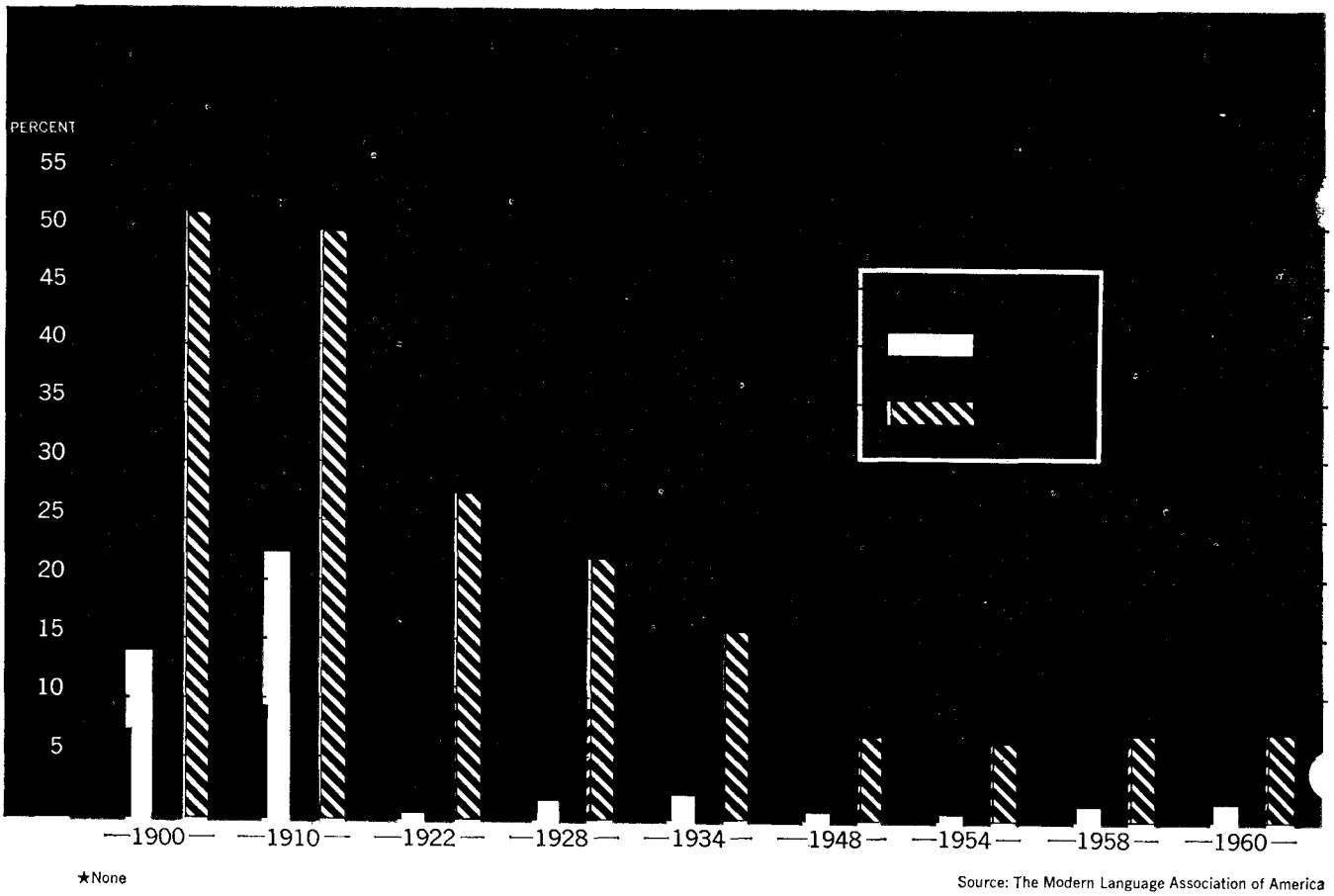

★None

Source: The Modern Language Association of America

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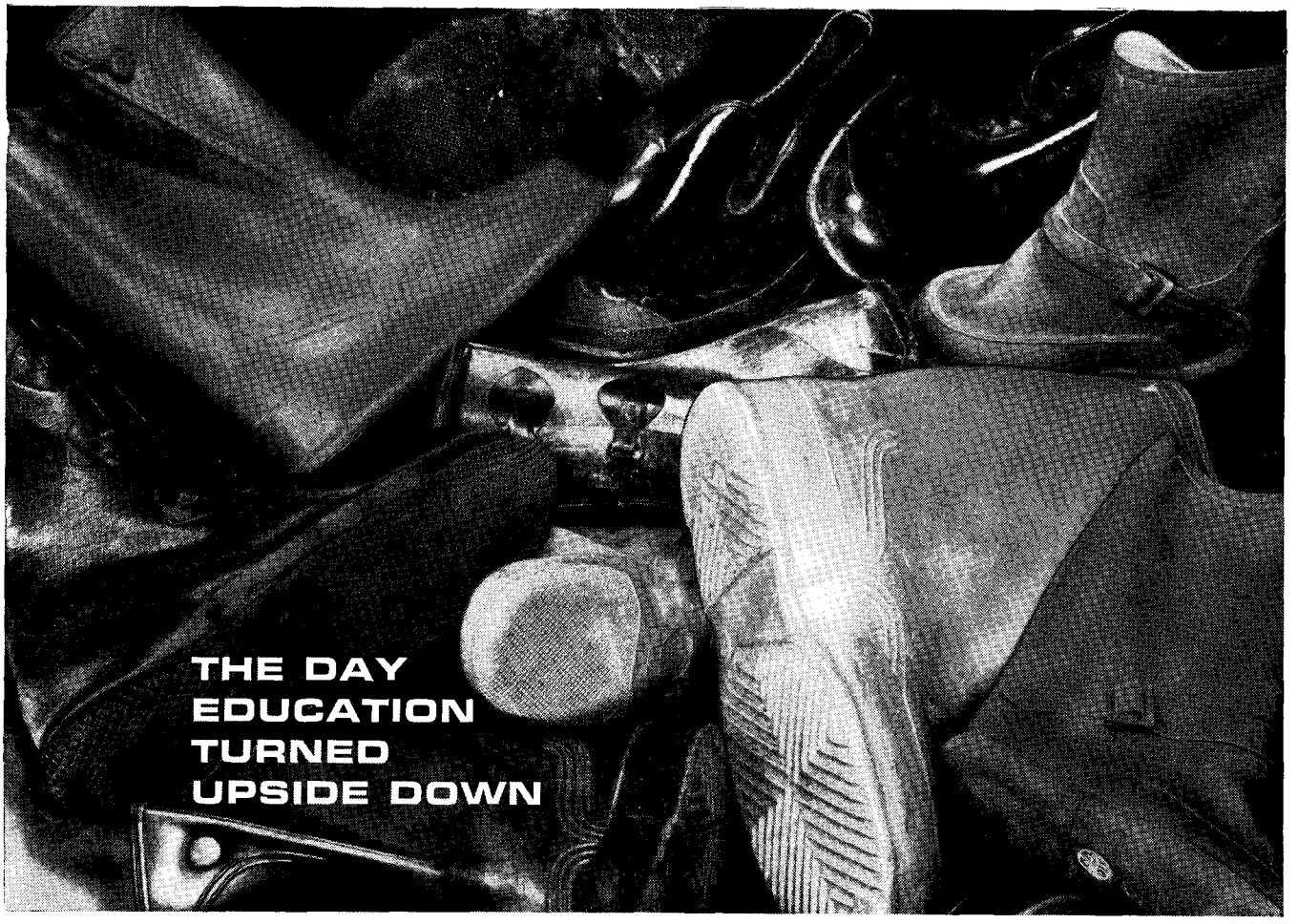
GREAT MOMENTS AT CHICAGO



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What Is a Language Laboratory?

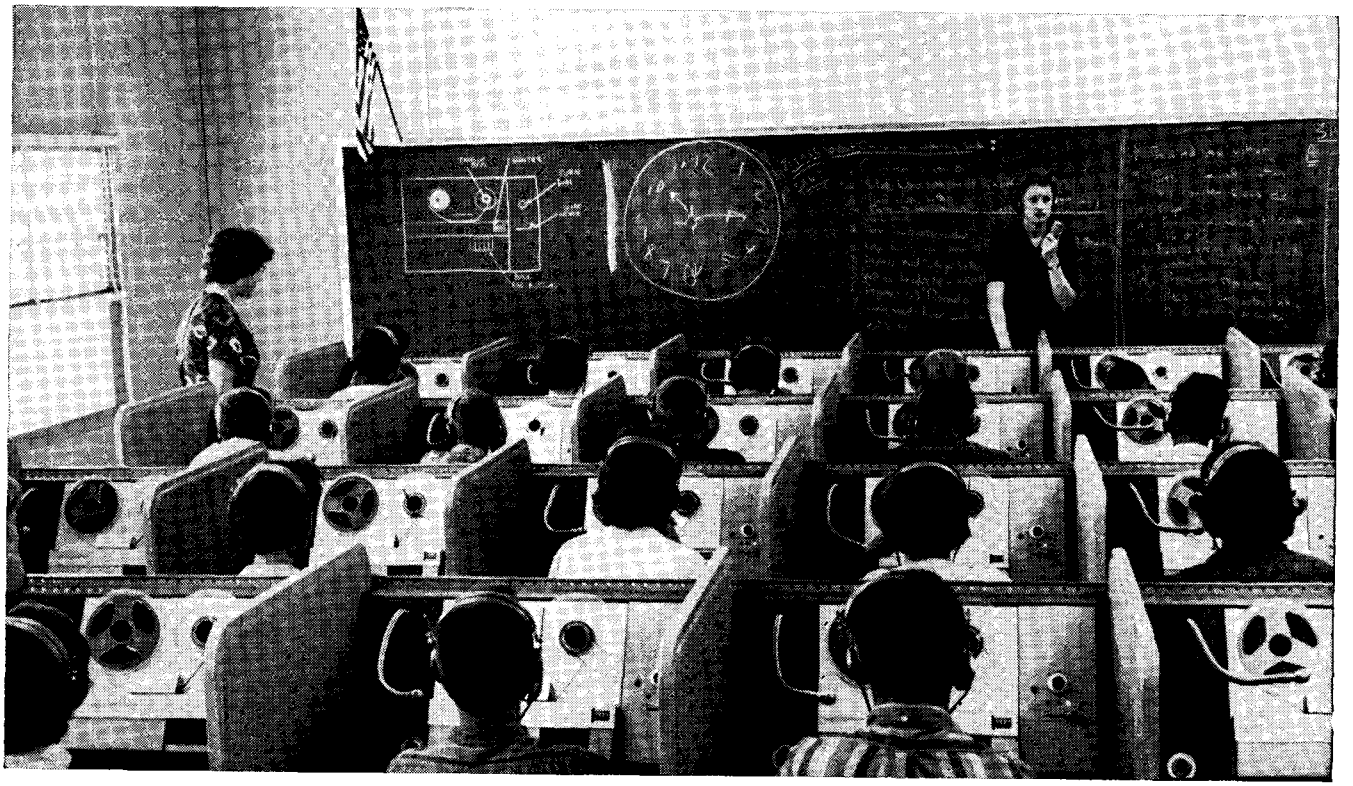
By ALFRED S. HAYES, *head of research and special projects at the Center for Applied Linguistics of the Modern Language Association of America, Washington, D.C.*

A LANGUAGE laboratory is a classroom or other area containing electronic and mechanical equipment designed and arranged to make foreign language instruction more effective. The same equipment may also be used for research and experimentation in language learning. Many different physical arrangements are possible. A typical system will use several tape recorders, occasionally supplemented by a record player. These machines are usually installed at a control station, which may also provide switching facilities through which the student's performance may be observed and corrected by the teacher. The students sit in individual, partly enclosed booths, and listen to recorded lessons through headphones. Simple systems may use only tables and one tape recorder. An elaborate system may provide each student with his own tape recorder, with which he can record both the lesson material and his own responses. By replaying this recording, he can compare his performance with that of the speaker on the tape. He can also work at his own pace. In the public schools, students usually attend by classes, under the supervision of a teacher; such installations therefore accommodate about thirty students simultaneously. Many colleges and universities use a "library" system, often accommodating more than 100 students at once. Students attend at their own convenience, frequently with only nominal supervision.

THE role of the language laboratory can be understood only in the light of other developments. The current revolution in language teaching recognizes a national commitment to increase the number of American citizens who can speak and understand a foreign language. Understanding and speaking a foreign language are now regarded first as essential primary objectives in themselves, then as a sound basis for systematically acquiring the important reading and writing skills on which the affairs of a literate society so heavily depend. This shift of emphasis, away from mere reading-through-grammar, is paralleled by advances in linguistic science and allied fields, which have contributed to a new view of language and language learning. Central to this view is the notion that the learner must first acquire certain habits, to the point where he reacts instantaneously to what he hears, and readily produces what he wishes to say.

The only known way to form habits is through practice. Learning a foreign language is in this respect much like learning to play a musical instrument. No one questions that the music student must practice. No amount of study of musical notation alone will teach anyone to play, say, the piano. The mechanics of piano playing must be automatic, or the student will never be able to concentrate on reproducing the "meaning" the composer intended, much less go on to successful improvisation or composition. Acquiring accurate control of a foreign language is even more exacting, for the accomplished speaker must constantly improvise, often producing genuine, natural utterances which neither he nor anyone else has said before in exactly that way. Language and musical improvisation are, however, tightly bound, the one to sounds, word forms, and constructions, the other to notes, scales, and chords, to which the listener must react. Without firm control of these elements, the improvisation will be chaotic, and the "message" will not be understood. The poet, and the composer, exploit this firm control to experiment with different arrangements to convey meanings old and new.

Practice, then, is essential to understanding and speaking a foreign language. A competent teacher, who makes the best possible use of classroom time, and has access to good



—*Dictaphone Corp.*

"The language laboratory can provide many native voices."

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teaching materials, can, indeed, successfully provide the kind of practice required. But by no means all teachers, at the present state of teacher training, have native-like control of the language they teach, and the language laboratory can provide many native voices. Even more important, it is difficult, often exhausting, for a live teacher to provide, throughout countless repetitions, the consistently authentic model and the carefully sequenced drill progression which efficient practice requires. The main purpose of the language laboratory is to provide this efficient practice.

There are more than 5,000 language laboratories in our public schools, perhaps 900 in colleges and universities, and the number increases yearly. But the mere presence of such an installation does not of itself guarantee the success of an institution's foreign language program. Its presence may even be misleading, suggesting a basic change in theoretical and methodological orientation, when none in fact exists. Shiny hardware may actually have been acquired as a status symbol, while traditional objectives and practices remain unchanged.

The usefulness of the language laboratory depends on many things. Teachers must be well prepared, and such teachers are still scarce. Special teaching materials, including tapes, which exploit current theoretical advances, have only recently become available, and must be constantly improved. Classroom and laboratory must work together. The equipment must produce high-quality sound and continue to do so. Most important of all, parents and teachers alike must come to value success in understanding and speaking a new language. Most students already do so, but lose their enthusiasm when they find themselves still graded primarily on what they write on paper.

The revolution is, however, basically sound. Tremendous research efforts in linguistic science, in the psychology of language learning, in the programming of lesson material, and in equipment design, are under way. Martin Mayer diagnoses the situation correctly in his book "The Schools" when he recommends that "evaluation" of current American foreign-language instruction be postponed for ten and preferably twenty years. At least fifteen more years of unrelenting effort will be necessary before these methods can produce really striking results, results that will be directly observable in the greatly increased number of situations in which Americans will be using foreign languages.

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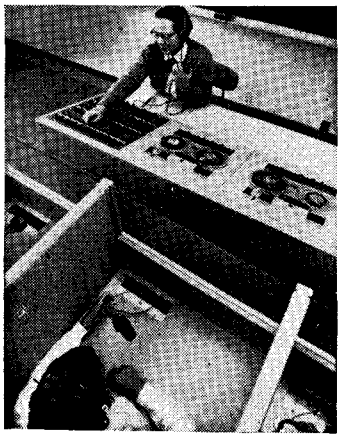

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The Army's Language School

By ALFRED FRIENDLY, JR., *of Newsweek, who graduated from the school last August after completing the forty-seven-week Russian course.*

ALONG with the rest of the United States, though perhaps a little bit sooner, the Pentagon learned that the ability to speak a foreign language is not a luxury but a modern essential. At the U.S. Army Language School this realization guides an intensive program of language training that surpasses in quantity, and probably in quality, similar efforts anywhere in the nation.

Located 125 miles south of San Francisco on a sandy hill that has commanded Monterey Bay ever since the Spanish made it a military outpost in 1770, the Army Language School maintains a curriculum of twenty-eight languages, processes some 2,000 students a year, and has already graduated more than 30,000 military linguists. Established just a month before Pearl Harbor in an abandoned hangar on San Francisco's Crissy Field, the school first taught only Japanese. At the end of the war and after an undignified period spent in an erstwhile mattress factory and a former home for the indigent in Minnesota, the ALS moved to Monterey and added Chinese Mandarin, Russian, and eight other languages to its program. It now offers instruction in Arabic, Albanian, Serbo-Croatian, Burmese, and Vietnamese (to name a few) and hopes to start courses in Swahili by mid-1963.

Although the ALS spent the war years outside the mainstream of the military effort to produce hurry-up language courses, it is now the foremost exponent of the so-called Army method developed when the Army Specialized Training Program, directed by the American Council of Learned Societies, set up intensive language courses on fifty-seven U.S. campuses. At Monterey, the Army method is centered on the following practices: never more than eight students to a class; each of the 460 instructors must be a "native speaker" of the language he teaches; a minimum of English used in the classroom; de-emphasis of formal grammatical rules and heavy concentration on dialogue memorization, word pattern repetition, and pronunciation. The wrapping on this educational package consists of frequent use of tape recorders and language laboratory sessions, supplemented by conversation periods during which students pretend to be shopping for groceries, getting haircuts, opening bank accounts, or interrogating prisoners of war. Also during the six-hour classroom day, five days a week, the soldier-linguists see a number of films made in the language they are studying and even go regularly to singing classes (known in the Russian department as "Sing Along with Mitchovich").

At the Army Language School, learning the customs of a country is almost as important as being able to speak its language.

Utilizing this concentrated exposure, including a fairly hard-and-fast minimum of three hours nightly homework, the ALS graduates students of Romance languages within six months, of harder Slavic and Asiatic tongues in a year. Its alumni, roughly two enlisted men to every officer, usually go abroad to work as interpreters, translators, radio monitors, military attachés, and in classified intelligence positions. Because of their generally high I.Q.s (well above Army average) and the likelihood that they have had some college background, these graduates are occasionally greeted derisively as "Monterey Marys." At least one European commander, however, termed them indispensable and declared that he "would bleed and die for the Army Language School."

Until recently, it appeared that such a sacrifice might be helpful. The Presidio of Monterey is overcrowded with outdated wooden barracks and classroom buildings and provides modern living and studying facilities for only 440 students. Mario Pei, who spent a summer at the school in 1960, holds a "very high opinion" of it, but conceded that the ALS has "problems that only money can cure. Its instructors are underpaid and they know it." The teachers, moreover, have experienced two severe budget cuts (during the Eisenhower Administration) that trimmed 140 from the staff. Many of them "moonlight," and others who want to earn more money must often become supervisors and give up some of their teaching duties.

Under the newly formed Defense Language Institute, which will coordinate all Defense Department language training (except the service academies) under Army management, the outlook for the ALS has brightened. One immediate result has been Congressional approval of an $800,000 appropriation for new 220-man barracks, an expenditure twice delayed by earlier lack of progress toward unification of Army, Navy, and Air Force language training. Colonel James L. Collins, who commanded the school until the summer of 1962 when he took over planning for the DLI, is conscious of Monterey's difficulties. Speaking three languages himself, Colonel Collins, as head of the DLI, will undoubtedly do a great deal to rescue language training from its position as an intellectual step-

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child in a hardware-minded family.

Among the issues he will have to neet will be the role of "area studies" in the military language program. It is possible, of course, to absorb a feeling for the culture along with the language—by osmosis. But ALS students are exposed to a minimum of historical and literary background of the societies whose languages they learn—and then often in outdated textbooks. To date, the course developers have not found a proper rebuttal to the charge that the Army method is "anti-literature" or that it downgrades language learning as an intellectual discipline. Officers often go from Monterey to area study programs at civilian universities before they are sent abroad. Enlisted men rarely have that opportunity, and while at Monterey are subject to a regular Army disciplinary routine that sometimes seems excessive. "It's like doing KP and physics at the same time," one soldier complained. "Physics comes out second best."

Nevertheless, it is impossible to disagree with one professional linguist who noted that the ALS "does a job no university could or would handle. And it does it very well." The University of California, in fact, last year inaugurated a program of exchange with the ALS, paving the way for thirty university students to take a year of intensive language training at Monterey, while ALS instructors use the university's facilities to deepen their own linguistic background. Such an arrangement suggests, of course, the unfortunate truth that American schools cannot as a rule provide the same proficiency in the same time span that the ALS offers. While the "audio-lingual" or "aural-oral" methodology furthered by the Army's wartime pressure for linguists has made sweeping inroads on traditional language teaching methods in the United States, the speed of the military system has yet to be duplicated or adapted to regular instructional techniques.

Perhaps the Army system does not need to be duplicated. But even with the ALS enrollment expanding to 3,000, as predicted for the end of 1963, neither the Pentagon's nor the nation's requirement for skilled linguists is likely to be met in the near future. The history of the ALS suggests only that the need to meet these requirements is at last getting proper recognition.

The Role of the NDEA

By DONALD D. WALSH, *Director of the Modern Language Association of America.*

THE National Defense Education Act, passed in 1958 and renewed for two years in 1961, has had a tremendous effect on the teaching of modern foreign languages because languages were one of three areas (with mathematics and science) singled out for special aid by the Federal Government.

Title III of the Act authorizes the payment of up to $75,000,000 a year to state educational agencies, on a matching-funds basis, for strengthening instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. Each state desiring to receive payments under this title (and nearly all of them do) must submit a plan setting forth a program to provide special supervision and specialist assistants and to purchase laboratory and other special equipment, including audio-visual and other equipment and materials, except textbooks. Nonprofit private schools may apply for low-interest loans for the purchase of similar equipment. The federal subsidy has given a powerful impetus to the installation of language laboratories, which promise to become as essential to a well-equipped school as science laboratories. The number of laboratories in public secondary schools has grown from forty-six in 1957 to about 5,000 in 1962. In 1957 only two states and the District of Columbia had foreign language specialists on the staff of the state education agency. There are now thirty-nine states with a total of fifty-six foreign language specialists on the state education staffs.

The one section of the act devoted exclusively to the improvement of instruction in modern foreign languages is Title VI, "Language Development." It has two parts, the first devoted to language and area centers, modern-foreign-language fellowships, and research and studies, the second devoted to language institutes. The U.S. Commissioner of Education is authorized to arrange through contracts with institutions of higher education for the establishment and operation by them of language and area centers for the teaching of any "neglected" modern foreign language, defined as a language essential to the national interest and for which adequate instruction is not available in the United States. Accompanying the language training should be sufficient instruction in related fields to provide a full understanding of the area in which the language is used. Up to half the cost of these centers is provided by the government and at least half by the contracting institution. The fifty-three present NDEA Language and Area Centers also receive support from the Title VI graduate fellowships program, since about 70 per cent of the fellows attend the centers. The foreign languages of first priority are Arabic, Chinese, Hindi-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish. Other languages among many whose study is being supported by graduate

Enrollments in High School Russian Courses, Fall 1960

Alabama	16
Arizona	56
Arkansas	17
California	1,440
Colorado	366
Connecticut	404
Delaware	13
D. of Columbia	73
Florida	82
Georgia	145
Idaho	13
Illinois	932
Indiana	43
Kansas	13
Louisiana	25
Maine	8
Maryland	37
Massachusetts	316
Michigan	509
Minnesota	43
Missouri	112
Montana	22
Nebraska	57
New Jersey	469
New Mexico	120
New York	1,362
North Dakota	11
Ohio	281
Oklahoma	13
Oregon	510
Pennsylvania	1,029
Rhode Island	53
South Dakota	11
Utah	208
Virginia	162
Washington	504
Wisconsin	132
Total	9,607

—From "Foreign Language Offerings and Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1960." Modern Language Association of America. September 1962.

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fellowships in 1962-63: Bengali, Czech, Hausa, Hebrew, Indonesian, Korean, Mongolian, Persian, Polish, Thai, and Turkish.

In the first four years of the NDEA, 1,620 graduate students received fellowships totalling $8,700,000. The universities with the largest numbers in 1962-63: Harvard (with Radcliffe), 129; Columbia, 125; Michigan and Wisconsin, 71; California at Berkeley, 66; Indiana, 49; Chicago and Stanford, 48; University of Washington and UCLA, 38; Pennsylvania, 37; Yale, 32; Cornell, 24. About 100 undergraduate fellowships will be awarded this summer for intensive study of Arabic, Far Eastern, South Asian, Southeast Asian, and sub-Saharan African languages. Forty post-doctoral fellowships have been announced for intensive study of Spanish, Portuguese, and sub-Saharan African languages.

During the first three years of the NDEA, nearly $8,500,000 was contracted for 161 projects in research and studies in modern foreign languages. New materials being prepared with NDEA funds include visual aids, tests to measure the qualifications of language teachers, audio-lingual materials for grades seven to twelve, tests in the four skills for school and college students, a two-year college course in Russian, films to illustrate new teaching techniques, a basic list of Russian books for language and area studies, a "Selective List of Materials," and specialized materials for the neglected languages.

The final and most dramatic activity of the NDEA is the establishment of Language Institutes that offer teachers intensive training in the four language skills, in applied linguistics, in the culture of the countries whose languages they teach, and in modern methods of teaching, including the use of the language laboratory. From June 1959 through June 1962 over 11,000 teachers of modern foreign languages have received this training, most of them in summer sessions. Beginning in 1961, most institutes have indicated the level of language proficiency that they expect of applicants, who are thereby directed to apply for admission to institutes that match their capabilities. Most of these institutes are conducted in the United States, but graduates of first-level institutes are eligible to apply for participation in second-level institutes conducted in Puerto Rico or abroad (France, Germany, Latin America, and the Soviet Union). For the summer of 1963, twelve such second-level institutes will enroll 753 teachers. For this summer and for the academic year 1963-64 a total of about 3,660 elementary and secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages will be able to participate in seventy-one language institutes within the continental United States, of which sixty-seven will be summer institutes. Of the secondary-school teachers enrolled in summer institutes in 1962, 1,257 teach French, 1,006, Spanish; 726, German; 146, Russian; 40, Hebrew; and 35, Chinese. Of the elementary school teachers, 562 teach Spanish; 227, French; 50, German; and 5, Chinese.

The NDEA is due to expire in June 1964 unless it is extended or revised in the present session of Congress.

NDEA Graduate Fellowships

	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
Number of fellows	171	472	766	1,006
Fellowship awards	$500,342	$1,674,513	$2,799,631	$3,919,037
Number of institutions	25	34	47	58
Number of fellows studying:				
Arabic	22	61	96	109
Chinese	32	64	107	137
Hindi-Urdu	10	41	73	72
Japanese	24	64	100	104
Portuguese	14	36	54	80
Russian	69	132	189	177
Spanish	....	....	....	100
Other languages	....	74	147	227

Source: "Higher Education," U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., October-November, 1962.

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Life Is Fun in a Smiling, Fair-Skinned World

The literary merit of the "readers" used by children in the elementary grades has been widely discussed and their value as teaching instruments has been debated. But the effect of these books on a child's view of the world has rarely been analyzed.

Otto Klineberg is a distinguished social psychologist who has examined 15 widely used readers and here raises some disturbing questions about their contents. The books examined are listed on page 76.

By OTTO KLINEBERG

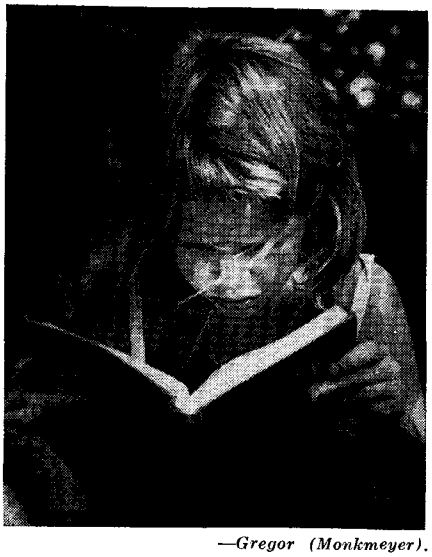
"READERS" are presumably prepared for the purpose of teaching children to read, adding to their vocabulary, developing the capacity to see the interrelationship of ideas; children are helped to understand the structure of sentences and of grammatical forms, to follow the sequence of events, and to become aware of the manner in which ıey are united and integrated. One reader speaks of the "steady growth of interpretative powers" which is insured through the content of the stories, and describes the situations and plots as containing a "meaningful interplay of the personality, mood, emotion, and purpose of the characters" (5). (This and the following numbers refer to the books listed in the accompanying box). The present writer expresses no opinion as to the contribution of these readers to the ability to *read*, but this analysis of their content raises in his mind, however, some very real questions regarding their contribution to the children's *picture of American society*, the *attitudes* and modes of thinking which are presumably developed, and the desire to *read further*.

First, and perhaps most important, is the picture of American society which is presented. Margaret Mead and Rhoda Metraux have written about "The Study of Culture at a Distance" (University of Chicago Press, 1953), describing the attempts to understand another culture on the basis of its plays or motion pictures, its books, its manuals of child care, etc. Suppose the ʻsitor from Mars or even from Thailand ıed to reconstruct American life from the content of these readers, without any other data to guide him. The resultant picture would be approximately as follows:

The American people are almost exclusively white or Caucasian. The only exception discovered in the fifteen readers refers to a visit to a Western ranch, near which lived an American Indian family, who spent most of their time "making beautiful things . . . to sell to the white people who came to the Indian country" (12). The story told is in general friendly and sympathetic to the Indians, except that they are treated as exotic and "different," not really part of the American scene. Their names—"Big Horn," "Shining Star", etc.—strike Jack, the white American boy, as "funny" (12). This incipient ethnocentrism might have been countered by reminding Jack that many proper names may be considered "funny," depending on one's experiences. What about Longfellow or Bacon? Even "old American" names may refer to occupations (Baker, Tinker), or colors (Brown, Green), or places (Hill, Field); some of the most distinguished names in American history, like Roosevelt, Eisenhower, or more recently Shepherd (or its variant Shepard) also refer, as do most American Indian names, to places or occupations. There are other stories of Indians, but mostly of Indian children of a bygone day (14).

The Americans in these readers are almost exclusively North European in origin and appearance. When any mention of ethnic origin appears, which is rarely, it is English, French (Brittany), or Norwegian (13). Other peoples and places are visited, including Lapland, Spain, and North Africa, but this is part of travel to foreign lands, and not part of the picture of America. In this particular case, one traveler, on the apparent basis of experience with the North African desert, delivers himself of the following judgment: "A mighty interesting country, Africa" (13), as if nothing existed south of the Sahara, and as if Africa were one (Arab) country instead of a great many different ones.

To return to the ethnic picture in the United States, the exceptions to the usual North European appearance and origin are themselves significant. An organ grinder is given an appearance which is stereotypically Italian or Greek, with a red scarf instead of a necktie; he appears in the illustration on the cover, as well as several times in the text (1). A slightly different version of the same, or similar, organ grinder appears in another Reader (9). There is also an Italian- or Greek-looking peddler who carries a big bag on his back (14). Finally, there is a story of a discontented horse that works for Mr. Polaski, who "sold fruits and vegetables," and who also "looks" very South- or Central-European in the accompanying illustrations (14). The treatment of these characters is by no means unsympathetic, and the last example occurs in a story which is charmingly written, but one cannot help wondering about the extent to which the stereotype—South Europeans



—Gregor (Monkmeyer).

—Max Tharpe (Monkmeyer).

"The earliest impressions develop attitudes that persist."

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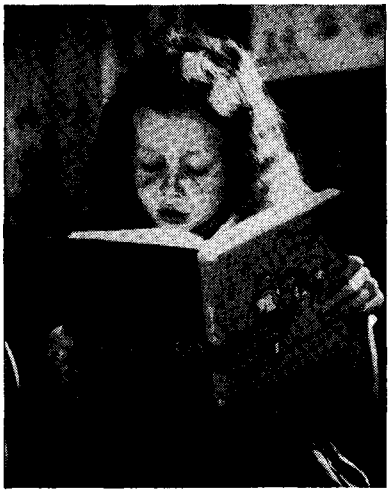
are organ grinders, peddlers, and fruit and vegetable vendors—may be strengthened by such a presentation.

Americans in these readers are predominantly, almost exclusively, blondes. A check on the illustrations used in three of the readers, found in two of them (3, 4) almost 100 per cent blondes, and another (2) with 75 or 80 per cent. There are occasional references to dark skin, but these usually relate to people far away. Pandas, for example, are found in a distant land (India?) with dark-skinned people (7); in Lapland there are "small dark men" (13); and of course the illustrations for the stories about China, India, North Africa, etc., do show dark people. Not in the United States, however, apart from the exceptions noted above. Negroes are nonexistent. One reader has a story called "A Summer in the South," in which a boy and his father go "away down South to see Grandmother." But there are apparently no Negroes even in the South. It is true that Grandmother had a cook whom Paddy liked "almost as well as he liked Grandmother" (12), but even in the case of the cook, there is no indication of what Charlie May looked like. Either there are no Negroes, or they must not be mentioned. Some years ago, H. E. Wilson ("Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials," Washington, American Council on Education, 1949) pointed out that in American textbooks foreign nationalities, as well as American minority groups, are either placed in an unfavorable light or are treated inadequately. In the readers under review, to speak of "inadequate treatment" of the Negro is an extreme understatement.

Religion, as was to be expected, is rarely mentioned. Only in one reader is there a reference to religious observance, when on Sunday "everyone was going to church" because "this is Sunday, you know" (9). Paddy says, "I always go to church on Sunday, I



—*Max Tharpe (Monkmeyer).*

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Widely Used Elementary Readers

Dr. Klineberg says of the following books, "These are without exception presented in an attractive format, with hard covers, excellent print, and colorful, attractive illustrations. Although the exact publication figures are not available to the writer, they have been described as representing popular and successful books, adopted for general use by many school boards throughout the country."

1. On Cherry Street	The Ginn Basic Readers, First Reader (Primer) 1961. O. Oursley & D. H. Russell
2. We Are Neighbors	The Ginn Basic Readers, Second Reader, Level I. 1961. O. Oursley & D. H. Russell
3. Fun With Our Family	New Basic Reading Program, Scott, Foresman & Co., Second Pre-Primer, 1962. H. Robinson, M. Monroe, & A. S. Artley
4. Fun Wherever We Are	Third Pre-Primer, Scott, Foresman & Co., 1962. H. Robinson, M. Monroe, & A. S. Artley
5. Fun With Our Friends	Primer, Scott, Foresman & Co., 1962. H. Robinson, M. Monroe, & A. S. Artley
6. The New Guess Who	Special Junior Primer, Scott, Foresman & Co., 1962. H. Robinson, M. Monroe, & A. S. Artley
7. On Four Feet	The Macmillan Readers, Basal First Reader, 1960. A. I. Gates, M. B. Huber & F. S. Salisbury
8. The Little White House	Ginn, Primer, 1961. O. Oursley & D. H. Russell
9. Round About	Alice & Jerry Basic Reading Program; Row, Peterson & Co. First Reader, 1957. M. O'Donnell
10. Friends and Fun	Macmillan, Basal Second Reader, 1960. A. I. Gates, M. B. Huber & F. S. Salisbury
11. Around the Corner	Ginn, Second Reader, Level II, 1961. O. Oursley & D. H. Russell
12. Friendly Village	Row, Peterson & Co. Basic Second Reader, 1957. M. O'Donnell
13. If I Were Going	Row, Peterson & Co. Basic Third Reader, 1957. M. O'Donnell
14. Finding New Neighbors	Ginn, Third Reader, Level I, 1961. D. Russell, G. Wulfing & O. Oursley
15. Friends Far and Near	Ginn, Third Reader, Level II, 1961. D. Russell & G. Wulfing

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always do". On a Sunday morning Mr. Carl rolled over in bed until the church bell called, "Come to church! Come to church!" These are the words with which this particular reader closes. No one could argue that in these readers religious (Christian) observance is overemphasized, but again the opportunity might have been taken to give some idea of the range and variety of observance found among the different religious groups that constitute the American people. There is no hint of this in any of the readers examined.

Americans in these readers are all quite well-to-do; not exactly wealthy, perhaps, but certainly quite comfortable, to say the least. The illustrations show, for example, (1) a pleasant home with good furniture, all the children dressed in clean, attractive clothes, with talk about buying new dresses; there are all kinds of toys in the house; the children go out (presumably with their own pocket money) to buy balloons. Again (2), they live in pretty suburban houses, and the children have money in their pockets with which to go buy toys themselves (2). The farmer has his own tractor, and Father brings home a new car, "long and blue and beautiful" (2). In another Reader (3) the family has an attractive home with a car, a television set, toys, and bicycles. In still another, the mother buys her girls new coats (5); or they already have beautiful clothes and the house a modern, built-in kitchen (6); or the family takes a trip on a big and very luxurious ship (7); or the boy goes riding on his own pony (8); or the family lives in "a pretty white house" (9); or father takes the children to the circus and his boys to the ball game (11); or they take a train out West (12). Poverty exists, but usually only in fairy tales or those set in a foreign environment, and even in those cases everything turns out right before the end. Occasionally a boy will do some work in order to earn money, but he then puts away his twenty pennies in his own "bird bank" (9). Not only is there no poverty, but work seems to be readily available to everybody, and is on the whole not only easy, but "fun."

In fact, life in general is fun, filled almost exclusively with friendly, smiling people, including gentle and understanding parents, doting grandparents, generous and cooperative neighbors, even warm-hearted strangers. There is an occasional display of anger, but it is usually very transitory. In general, all is peaceful and happy.

In summary, then, life in the United States as it is portrayed in these children's readers is in a general way easy and comfortable, frustrations are rare and usually overcome quiet easily, people (all white, mostly blonde, and "North European" in origin) are almost invariably kind and generous. There are other kinds of people in the world, but they live in far-off countries or in days gone by; they evidently have no place on the American scene.

WHEN we turn to the *attitudes* which the content of the readers will develop in the children, we are on less certain ground, since we must depend on inference rather than on direct observation. Certain conclusions can be drawn, however, with a fair degree of probability. There is a great deal of published work which demonstrates that ethnocentric attitudes develop very early in children, and that they are already present at the ages for which these readers are destined. (See for example "Prejudice and Ethnic Relations," by John Harding *et al.*, Chapter 27 in G. Lindzey, editor, "Handbook of Social Psychology," 2 volumes, Addison Wesley, Cambridge, 1954, and K. B. Clark, "Prejudice and Your Child," Beacon Press, Boston, 1955). Obviously, the responsibility for this cannot all be laid at the door of school experience, since so many other influences make their contribution. Nevertheless, some of that responsibility must be borne by readers which, by what they omit as well as by what they contain, give the impression that the "true" American is of the fair-skinned "North European" variety. Although this was certainly not the aim of the writers concerned, the net effect would almost certainly be to strengthen the ethnocentric attitudes of those children who share these characteristics, and make all others—of Negro, Puerto Rican, South European, possibly also of Jewish origin—feel that they do not quite belong. Since these and other ethnic groups constitute a substantial proportion of the American school population, it would not be surprising if the readers had an alien quality for a great many of the children who come into contact with them. (The writer is reminded of a Brazilian first reader which starts out telling the children that Brazil has three "mothers," one European, white, one Indian, red, and one African, black, and goes on from there to describe how the present Brazilian population has developed.)

In addition to ethnocentrism, the readers also display what might rather clumsily be called a socioeconomic-centrism, a concentration on those who are relatively well-to-do. Here the problem is rather more complicated, because Americans are in general well-to-do, and the amenities described are within the reach of a substantial proportion of the population. For the remaining "one-fourth of a nation" it is part of the American dream that a more comfortable life is attainable. Until it is attained, however, the life portrayed in these readers must represent a very frustrating experience for them. Are *no* other families as poor as ours? Does everybody else live in a pretty white house? Are there no crowded tenements except where we live? Are we the only ones who can't go out and buy the toys we want? On the other side, is it desirable for the well-to-do children to be unaware that there may be poor people living on the other side of the tracks? Surely a more balanced presentation of American life, both from the ethnic and socioeconomic standpoints, would better prepare the children for what they will later encounter and help to correct what would otherwise be a one-sided picture. It may be argued that this will come in time, and that these children are still too young to face that kind of reality. The fact remains that the earliest impressions frequently develop attitudes that persist; it follows that it is never too early to tell children the truth.

THERE is another striking feature of these readers related to the question of "truth." In addition to the (conceivably factual) accounts of the activities and experiences of children and their families, most of the readers contain a number of stories, which, though fictional in character, deal with animals or with objects such as trains or airplanes which the children have in all probability encountered. These stories are predominantly characterized by *anthropomorphism* (ascribing human qualities to animals) and *animism* (ascribing life and thought to inanimate objects). Thus a snowman laughs (1), animals talk to one another (1,2,8,9, 10,11,14,15) and cooperate in joint enterprises (1); trains converse (10), and so do airplanes and helicopters (10, 11), cars and taxis (15), and there is even a little red lighthouse, round and fat and "very proud," which carries on a conversation with a new bridge (15).

There can be no doubt that animistic thinking is widespread among young children, at least in Western society. (J. Piaget, "The Child's Conception of the World," New York, 1929). It has been suggested, however, that this tendency would not be nearly so marked nor so common if it were not for the influence of language (as when we refer to a ship as "she"), the actions of parents and other adults (like spanking the chair that "hurt" the little child), and the stories told as in these particular readers, for example. In any case, animism is a stage *through which* children pass, through which children *must* pass if they are to reach a realistic appraisal of the outside world. The

(*Continued on page* 87)

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The U. S. Office of Education: An Inside View

Last fall Sterling M. McMurrin returned to his professorship of philosophy at the University of Utah after two years in Washington as U.S. Commissioner of Education. His resignation was variously interpreted as evidence of bureaucratic frustrations, of conflicts within the U.S. Office of Education, of conflicts between the Office of Education and the National Education Association, and a reaction to the failure of Congress to pass the Administration's Federal Aid to Education Bill. This, however, was little more than idle speculation. For a better informed analysis and interpretation, the editors asked Dr. McMurrin to comment informally and personally on his own experience as U.S. Commissioner of Education. The following is his response.

By STERLING M. McMURRIN

IN RECENT months the United States Office of Education has received considerable critical attention in the press and elsewhere. I both agree and disagree with that criticism. I do not agree with those who fail to recognize that much outstanding work is being done by the Office of Education in many areas, both in the administration of a large variety of federal programs providing financial support to education and in matters pertaining more directly to the substance of education. The federal monies expended through the Office of Education are handled wisely and efficiently. Where they are not made on the basis of formulas established by law, expenditures are usually on the advice of committees or panels of experts drawn from outside the government.

I fully agree, however, with the criticism of the office at the point of its failure to provide strong, forward-looking leadership, especially in the fields of elementary and secondary education. Though some good things have been done and are being done in these areas, the office can hardly claim to have been a major force in moving the schools ahead.

The professional staff of the Office of Education is quite uneven in quality, ranging from persons of most outstanding talents to some few whose abilities are not equal to their responsibilities. As a whole they are a very hard-working group with a most admirable dedication to the public good. At the present time the staff does not possess adequate variety in education and experience to qualify it for some of the large tasks ahead, but a 1962 liberalizing of the Civil Service examination under which most of the appointments are made should improve that situation. There is a great need for more people educated and experienced in specialties outside the field of professional education, such as economics, sociology, and anthropology. There is need for greater mobility between the office staff and the faculties of educational institutions, and for the short-term services of high-level scientists, scholars, and artists.

THE office exhibits, of course, many of the ills that commonly afflict large bureaucratic structures. Things often move too slowly, and there is all too commonly an attitude of defensiveness in the presence of criticism. Moreover, taken as a whole, the office suffers from a measure of conservatism in matters of educational philosophy and policy that impedes its effectiveness in providing genuine leadership. Too many on the staff are afflicted with the anti-intellectualism that over the past few decades has damaged both the character and quality of American education, that has so often made knowledge and the cultivation of reason peripheral rather than central to the aims and purposes of education.

Nevertheless, I feel that most of those who occupy major positions of leadership among the staff are people of fine initiative, responsive to efforts to move ahead and sensitive to the major problems now faced in education. I greatly admired the readiness of the staff to accept the new organization of the office, instituted in 1961, which often meant major personal adjustments in the interest of increased efficiency in the total organization. The main impediment to more effective action down the line seems to be the persistence of the tradition that the Office of Education is and should be essentially a service organization rather than an instrument of effective leadership. I do not question the importance of its service to the Congress, the Administration, the public, and to educational institutions and the profession. But I am convinced that it should function also, and not secondarily, as an agency of leadership in education, that by virtue of the strength of the ideas set in motion by it, and not through any instruments of administrative or other control, it should play a major role in upgrading the quality of American education at all levels. This it has not done in the past, and the future is uncertain. The difficulty lies largely in the fact that the office has been so deeply affected by the "service" mentality and by the appointment of many persons whose talents fit the service function but do not satisfy the requirements of leadership. At best it will take time and considerable personnel turnover to effect a major change.

I was aware from the beginning that my appointment as Commissioner was not popular with some of the Washington representatives of elementary and secondary education. In subtle, and sometimes not so subtle, yet friendly ways I was described as something of an outsider, almost an intruder. Being in my twenty-third year as a teacher and having met my last class on the morning of the day I went to Washington, I personally felt that I was about as close to education as many of those who had been in Washington offices for two or three decades. Nevertheless, our relations were always cordial, and I think they might even have become warm if it had not been for two things. In the first place, I turned out to be something of a critic of the present condition of American education. This, to put it mildly, did not sit well with some of the Washington spokesmen for lower education. Until then I hadn't realized that a defensive posture in the presence of criticism is one of the dominant characteristics of the average school administrator, and especially of his Washington representatives. This is probably much less true of teachers. However, my relations with a considerable number of the nation's foremost school superintendents were positive in every way. I have great admiration for them and what they are doing. As for criticism, they take it in their stride, recognizing it as essential to the improvement of civic institutions. I was never quite able, however, to put over the point that my own crit-

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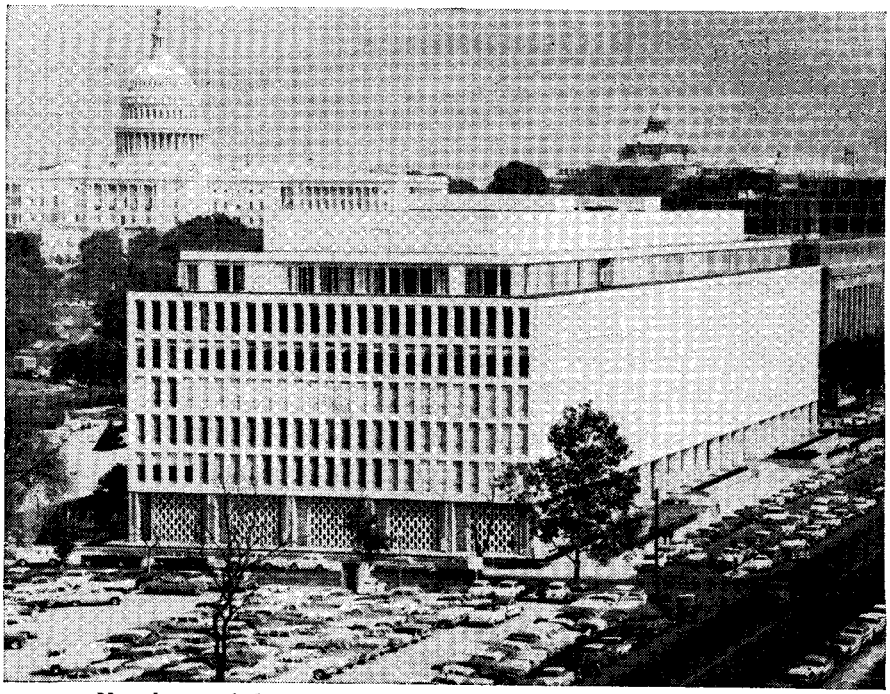
icisms of education were criticisms of our society, a society that fails to esteem education for its full worth and uses adequately to commit its material and human resources to the purposes of education. Though things are improving, our people in general are still willing to settle for less than we are capable of and desperately need in quality and quantity of education.

The other thing that made me less acceptable to some of the Washington bureaucrats than I might have been was the failure of the Administration's general aid bill for public education. All of us were genuinely disappointed in the failure of the Rules Committee to send the bill to the floor of the House, but for some reason or other the top National Education Association (NEA) leadership insisted on pinning that failure on the Administration. They clearly felt that the Administration had left things undone that if done would have brought the bill out of the committee. They were quite unable, however, to propose any action that hadn't already been taken, except that they wanted the President to get mad as he did with the steel companies. I recognize that in various ways lobbyists perform an important public function and I am not totally aware of the grim realities of politics, but I must confess that I am somewhat appalled by the attitude that seems to be so common among Washington lobbyists that the United States Congress is something to be manipulated by pressures from either the lobbyists themselves or the Administration—and that if the Congress doesn't respond properly something has gone wrong.

During the last few months I have several times encountered the charge that during my term as Commissioner the NEA was in serious opposition to the office and to me personally. I believe that this charge is entirely false. As far as I am aware, relations between the NEA and the office were very good during my tenure, as they were before and as I am sure they will continue to be. I can say the same of the relations that existed between the office and the many other organizations that represent the various facets of American education. There were some differences in opinion and policy, but it seemed to me that this situation was both normal and healthy. Never did these differences interfere seriously with effective working relationships. In spite of a few minor incidents, my personal relations with the leaders of the NEA were very good, though I occasionally read in the papers that this was not the case. I am, nevertheless, somewhat critical of the NEA. I believe that, like so many other large national institutions, it suffers from the ailments of bigness and, like the Office of Education, is too much involved in perpetuating the status quo in education.

The most important disagreement in policy between the Office of Education and a major educational organization was with the American Association of School Administrators (AASA). It had to do with the appropriation to the public schools of federal funds for so-called categorical or specific purposes, as distinguished from "general" or more or less "no-strings-attached" money. Thus far, all federal money appropriated for education, running now around three billion dollars a year, has been for specific purposes. The present Administration policy supports both general and categorical aid, a policy with which I fully agree. The policies of the AASA, set forth in official resolutions of the organization, oppose categorical aid, which really means that they oppose the establishment of any more programs similar in principle to those now administered especially by the Office of Education and the National Science Foundation, such as aid for vocational education, matching funds for the purchase of scientific equipment, funds for educational research, teacher institutes for the upgrading of instruction in language and the sciences, etc. In my personal contacts with individual school superintendents, however, I did not usually find this opposition to categorical programs. I am strongly of the opinion that the school administrators as a group have been willing to adopt policies that only a minority would favor as individuals. It seems to me that one of the main problems in the matter of the Federal Government and education, including federal aid, is that there is a strong tendency on every hand to make decisions involving numerous complex factors on an oversimplified and doctrinaire basis. I think this is clearly the case here.

IN a sense the case for general aid is a negative one: the failure of the states, through neglect or necessity, to provide adequately for the quality and amount of education which the nation needs and of which as a nation it is capable. There is a sense in which now the education of every American is the proper concern of all other Americans. The argument for categorical aid, however, is in some instances positive: it is proper that the Federal Government rather than individual states or school districts finance certain specialized programs, such as those in which the schools of the entire nation stand to gain from a major project in educational research; and in some cases a centralized attack on a problem can be more successful than a piecemeal attempt, as in the present program designed to attract more people to and better prepare them for the profession of teaching the deaf. And there are some matters, as for instance instruction in an uncommon foreign language, that are of vital concern to the nation yet can hardly be described as the responsibility of any particular institution. When it is seen that much federal financing is "incentive" in character, to get things going that otherwise would not be done, and that it stimu-



New home of the U. S. Office of Education—closer to Capitol Hill?

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lates state and local or even private expenditures for good purposes, the case for categorical aid is even stronger. Certainly federal aid to education of any variety should not be permitted to rob the states, communities, and institutions of their initiative and responsibility for fiscal support of education.

I am as much opposed as anyone to legislatures, state or federal, constructing the curriculum of the schools. But it seems to me that such a thing as a Congressional appropriation of funds for a massive high-level effort to raise the quality of secondary school instruction is a somewhat different matter. However, four of the leaders of the NEA, including the AASA, have objected strenuously to Project English, which was established in the Office of Education in 1961 to provide funds for non-government researchers to work on the improvement of teaching reading and composition. They objected on the ground that this is federal control of education since it involves a government decision to emphasize and subsidize a particular subject. Project English is not different in principle from the already established federal programs directed to the improvement of instruction in modern foreign languages, physics, chemistry, mathematics, and biology. I personally hope that the program now in motion, which includes also the social sciences, will be a continuing effort to produce the finest possible instruction in all basic subjects taught in the elementary and secondary schools, including music and art.

It is interesting that on this point of categorical aid the NEA officially has a policy that in principle conforms to the Administration position, as does the Council of Chief State School Officers, composed of the several state commissioners of education. Even the National School Boards Association has refrained from taking a stand against categorical aid, though its present position appears somewhat ambiguous.

It is a healthy thing to have a variety of conflicting views and opinions. Nevertheless, for a democratic society to succeed, those who hold those conflicting positions must sooner or later come to grips with one another and pound out a compromise policy of some sort that can serve as a basis for action. Here the spokesmen for secondary and elementary education have been less than successful. It is partly because of this, I believe, that their position with Congress is not very strong. The situation is somewhat different in higher education, where the American Council on Education sponsors a broadly representative commission for the formulation of educational policy in relation to the Federal Government.

I have urged Dr. William Carr, the Executive Secretary of the NEA, to attempt something similar for lower education. I hope he will do so, as I think he is the only one likely to succeed at such a task. As things now stand, there are too many educational voices that are making too little effort to come to terms with one another. The split between higher and lower education in this respect is something of a national disgrace. There is, of course, a basic difference between the Washington secretariats representing "higher" and those speaking for "lower" education, and this difference no doubt has large implications in many directions. That is, the "higher" organizations generally represent institutions—universities or colleges—while the "lower" represent individuals—superintendents, principals, or teachers.

It is entirely obvious that in the future the Federal Government will become more rather than less involved in educational matters, as very few if any members of Congress are opposed to every form of federal investment in education. The problem of the relation of our schools and universities to the government will always be an important and perhaps crucial one, as it is essential to our nation that we preserve the pluralistic structure of our culture. In our society this means, among other things, maintaining the state and local control of our schools and the independence and autonomy of our institutions of higher education.

I found no inclination in the government to favor federal controls on education. On the contrary, the people in the Office of Education were on the whole acutely sensitive to this issue and often went to extremes to guard against moving inadvertently into controls. In 1962 a review of regulations governing existing legislation was instituted in the interest of their liberalization in favor of a maximum of institutional freedom in the use of appropriated funds.

But the basic problem is not simply that of federal control. After all, federal officials and employees are on the average probably superior in ability and integrity to their state and local counterparts. The point is that we do not want a monolithic structuring of our educational establishment and program, for this would destroy much of the basic pluralism of our culture which is the lifeblood of our democratic institutions and way of life. While we keep a vigilant eye on the Federal Government, therefore, we had better keep it also on the various private and semi-public organizations that, while performing important and necessary national functions relating to education, can and sometimes do influence large segments of education to the point of control and are at times

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less sensitive to the issue of centralized control than is the government.

Finally, I would like to say that, as far as I am concerned, the office of Commissioner of Education has been dealt with somewhat unkindly by a number of writers in recent months. I have read a good deal about what a frustrating position it is, how uninviting and unrewarding. But I personally did not find this to be true and I am sure that the new Commissioner, Francis Keppel, will not find it to be true. I resigned for personal reasons, from a desire to return to scholarly research and teaching. I am very pleased that the President appointed Mr. Keppel as my successor. He will be in every way an outstanding Commissioner of Education.

Now, I do not mean to suggest that there are not problems with the Office of Education and with the position of Commissioner. I have described some of them here and on many other occasions. Among them is the need for a more broad and liberal Congressional authorization for the activities of the office. Apparently in fear of federal control, Congress even in its appropriations has given the Office of Education much less freedom of operation than is enjoyed by some other federal agencies concerned with education, as for instance, the National Science Foundation, the Atomic Energy Commission, or the National Aeronautics and Space Agency. I hope this situation will soon be rectified. The Congress should also provide the office with a far more substantial number of Civil Service supergrades to enable the appointment of more persons of the highest level of ability, education, and experience. The office has in the past been treated very shabbily in this respect. Congress should also provide the funds needed to institute the most up-to-date system for the collection, recording, and dissemination of education statistical data. The inability of the office sometimes to provide adequate current educational data is in large part due to the lack of the substantial funds necessary to establish a fully modern statistical information service, comparable, for instance, to that of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Perhaps most importantly, I believe that the Office of Education should have departmental status with Cabinet rank. It is unthinkable that the Post Office, essentially a business operation, should have Cabinet status while education, which daily becomes more important in the life of our society, is consigned to an enormous department that is a collection of more or less unrelated functions. I do not agree with those who argue, as some of the educational organizations do, for an independent educational agency controlled by a National Board of Education. The nation is not an enlarged school district, and such an arrangement would move education away from the life stream of the government and really threaten it with federal controls. Departmental status, however, would serve in the national interest by giving education a larger voice right at the center of the processes of government.

Federal Funds for Education

In fiscal year 1959, the latest year for which complete data are available, Federal support for education amounted to more than $2.4 billion. The following departments or agencies administered funds which accounted for 98 per cent of the Federal contribution:

Agency	*Amount (in millions of dollars)*
Department of Health, Education and Welfare	738
Veterans' Administration	602
Department of Agriculture	384
Department of Defense	301
National Science Foundation	123
Department of the Interior	114
Department of State	58
Atomic Energy Commission	51

Smaller amounts were provided through the Department of Labor, the District of Columbia, the Department of the Treasury, the Canal Zone, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the Department of Commerce, the Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, the Department of Justice, the Library of Congress, the Federal Aviation Agency, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.

—From "Progress of Public Education in the United States of America 1961-62", U.S. Office of Education, Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1962.

Let's Talk Sense About Textbooks

As long as books remain a major repository of human knowledge and human thought, reading will remain a basic tool of learning. And textbooks—whatever new media are developed—will have a major role in teaching children how to get facts and ideas from books.

Try looking at the books a child brings home from school as *how-to* books. Start with a first-grade reader, if you wish, and ask questions like these:

Is this book helping this child learn what reading is and how to do it? Is he just mouthing the words or is he putting himself into what he reads? Does he make us hear what Dick or Jane or Sally was feeling? Can he tell what he would have done if he'd been in Dick's shoes? Does he do this kind of thinking as he reads other books, as we read to him? Does he think what he'd do if he were Charlie Brown or Linus? If he were Christopher Robin or Pooh or Piglet? *Is he learning how to do some of the kinds of interpretation that are basic to all good reading?*

What else is he learning about the relationship between spoken words and printed words? Can he find for you all the words on the page that begin with the same sound as Dick, and with the printed letter *d*? Can he play a game like this with you? "I am thinking of a word for an animal. I'll print the first and last letters, you tell me the word. D_g. (What is it?) C_t. (What is it?) K_tt_n. (What is it?)" *Is this child beginning to see how our printed alphabet records the sounds he speaks?*

Is he getting a beginning grasp of syntax, of the functions of words in sentences? Try saying, "Let's find all the words for people in this story. All the words that tell what people do or did. All the words that tell what kind (pretty, big, little)." *Is he learning how to think about language—spoken and written—as he learns how to read?*

Any first-grade reading text is just a starting point. It should open doors to other reading, other learning. Every textbook is a *how-to* book: showing a child how to get started in a particular subject, how to learn more.

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Teaching Is Better With!

By MARGARET BENNETT, *a teacher in the Los Angeles public schools. She writes that although the name is "the nom de machine a écrire which I use during my off hours, the events described in the article are absolutely true, and I have the lines between my eyes and gray hairs in my crown to prove it."*

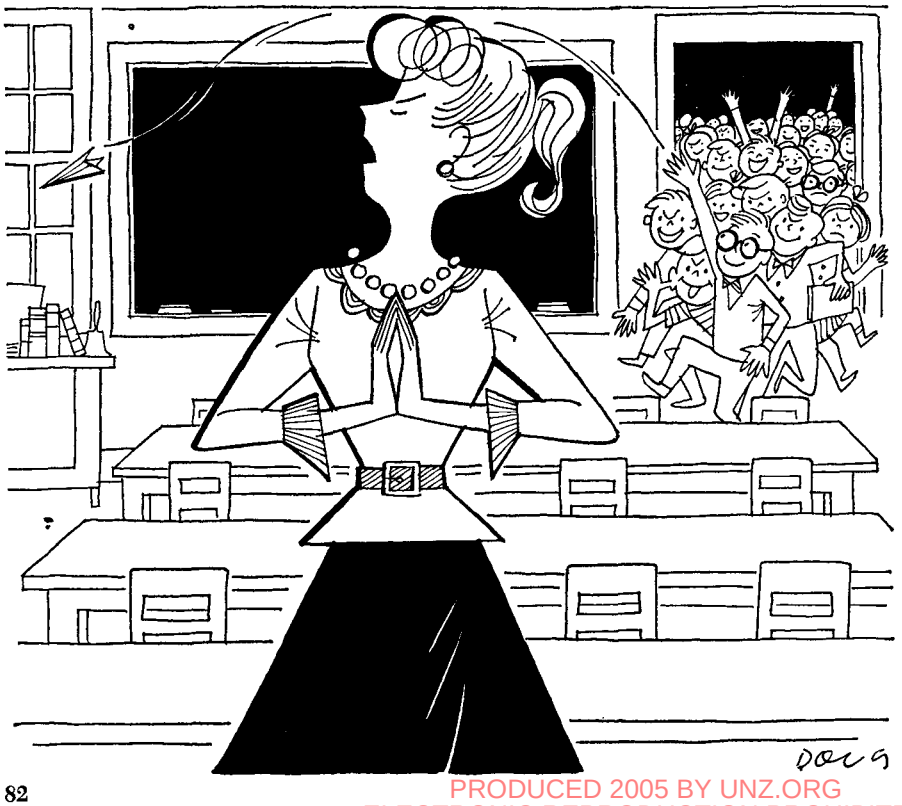
HARDLY anyone these days has a good word to say for education courses. Teachers criticize them, students criticize them, university professors criticize them, and Admiral Rickover criticizes them. It's not uncommon to hear a Ph.D. in mathematics convulse the crowd at a cocktail party by pointing out that, since he has never taken an education course, he is not considered qualified to teach the multiplication table to fourth graders. Yes, among the informed, the consensus is that education courses are nothing but hurdles of boredom and worthlessness designed to keep intellectuals out of a profession where they are desperately needed.

I, too, once held this opinion. As an undergraduate majoring in English at UCLA, I sneered at my roommate who was taking the education courses required for an elementary teaching credential. I saw her patiently lettering "The ocean says 'Roar, roar,'" on a chart, strumming "Widdy Widdy Wicky, I Call My Pet Chickie" on the autoharp, and committing to memory such profound gems of philosophy as "In the main, children tend to be different." How, I often wondered, could a rational human being spend even five seconds of precious existence on such senseless endeavors?

And then, in 1954, I graduated. This was at the height of the elementary teacher shortage in Southern California. The need was so acute that emergency credentials were being issued to anyone with a B.A., a negative chest X ray, and a personal history free from any taint of Communism. Since I qualified, and since no one else was clamoring for my vague talents, I decided to become a teacher.

I approached my job with confidence. After all, I could read and write and handle arithmetic up to my twelvesies. Besides that, since I had just spent four years in fresh, hot pursuit of truth and beauty, I would be able to give my students that something extra which the "educators" never could—a slight kiss of the gods, as it were.

My assignment was to a new school in the San Fernando Valley, where the enrollment had turned out to be double the anticipated number. When I reported for duty, a week after the semester started, there were three second-grade classes—all over the legal limit in size. A fourth was made up for me by taking ten or twelve children from each of the others. Naturally, any teacher in her right mind who has a chance to send children to another class will get rid of the pills. All three of the regular second-grade teachers were in their right minds. My class was, therefore, composed of the cream of the second-grade problem children plus some extra-low I.Q.'s (called "slow learners" in the trade).



Besides this ill-starred collection of students, I had an additional joy. The school was on half-day session to accommodate the unexpected hordes, and I drew an afternoon shift. My children attended class from 12:30 p.m. to 4:10 p.m. After a morning filled with roller skating and sibling battling, they were both keyed up and exhausted. This made for easy explosion of their already volatile personalities.

I would like to be able to relate in detail my first day in the classroom, but I have repressed it so completely that only several years of psychiatric probing could bring it to the surface again. I can, however, dredge up what would be a typical day in this, the grimmest period of my life.

I would arrive at school at noon, haggard from a night filled with the emotional breakdowns I could not allow myself in the classroom. The teacher who shared quarters with me released her class upon the world at 12:10, leaving me only twenty minutes to get ready for my onslaught of pupils.

By way of preparation, I would pace across the woven floor-sitting mats in the front of the room, wringing my hands, listening to the feet scurrying outside, waiting for the inevitable pounding on the door which indicated a pre-school fight or a parent bringing back a child who had been home storing up energy with a case of measles.

In the manner of Coué, I would chant to myself, "They're only little children. They're only *seven years old.* You're an intelligent adult. You can handle them." Then came the bell. My icy hand turned the doorknob, admitting thirty-eight sworn enemies. No, there were really only thirty-seven. Walter Bronkowski loved me madly. I later found out that he actually belonged in the first grade. This would account for his lack of discrimination in the selection of love objects.

The pledge of allegiance was the only activity of the day which would go off with any degree of success. After

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that it was downhill all the way, and a rough trip it was.

To guard the secret of my inadequacies as a teacher, I kept the classm doors and windows tightly closed, if I expected a tornado at any minute. (As a matter of fact, I did.) In this way the riotous sounds could not escape to the other rooms. The lack of oxygen began to make us all slightly groggy by around three in the afternoon, but I found this condition a welcome change.

I restricted our physical education activities to a few indoor calisthenics, because I quickly learned that *nowhere* does a lack of control show up more clearly than on the playing field. Besides, the only game I knew was "Drop the Handkerchief," which my students scorned as a "first-grade game."

The end of the day always provided a fitting climax. Before the final bell, the children were supposed to place their chairs on top of the tables so that the custodian could sweep with a maximum of speed and ease. At 4:09 my words, "All right, boys and girls, put your chairs on your tables and line up," would produce an activity closely resembling a combination of the storming of the Bastille and the Russian bread riots.

When the last child was gone, I ould wander despondently about the m for an hour, reliving the agonies of the day while I picked up the litter. I had to be sure to leave the room neat because custodians are notorious stool pigeons and are fast to inform the principal if "things don't look right."

Discipline and debris disposal, however, were only part of my trouble. I had even greater difficulty with teaching methods. Although the second-grade course-of-study manual outlined what I was required to teach, I had no idea how to teach it. For example, since my "slow learners" couldn't read at all, I decided to put them back into a beginning reading book. The first chapter was illustrated with several pictures of a tot in a ruffled dress holding a balloon. The heroine's emotions ran the gamut from delight, at the beginning, to anguish as the balloon escaped her and floated off into the sky. The entire text of the story was, "Oh, oh; oh, oh, oh; oh, oh!" Now, how do you teach *that* to a circle of upturned, open-mouthed faces?

Then there were other baffling areas of instruction. The course of study directed me to teach the fundamentals of "manuscript," a form of printing h which I was unfamiliar. In arithmetic, I was supposed to impart, with concrete examples, the concepts of addition and subtraction. (That is, I couldn't just say, "Now memorize this: six and three are nine.") I was supposed to give the students music lessons in a room in which the only instrument available was an autoharp, which I couldn't play. My art instruction suffered because I didn't know how to keep the clay supply from turning to stone overnight or how to mix tempera paints so they wouldn't turn sour and attract flies. The school had a good educational film library, but I didn't know how to run a projector. I didn't know . . . but I could go on forever.

Why didn't the principal step in and either give me some tutoring or fire me? Well, it was her first semester as principal and she had troubles of her own. But probably the main reason I was allowed to go my inept way was that there was no one available to take my place, and while I was not better than anything else, I was better than nothing.

Then, just as I was ready to throw in the ruler in favor of a job clerking at Newberry's, the benevolent and protective Ford Foundation appeared on the scene. To alleviate the tense situation in the Los Angeles area, they set up a teacher training project at the University of Southern California. This program was designed to help people like me fulfill the requirements for a regular teaching credential by taking education courses on Saturdays and in the summer. I fell upon this opportunity like a thirsty second grader upon a drinking fountain.

It would be nice to be able to say that I found my thirty units of education courses thrilling and inspiring. Unfortunately, I didn't. Often, just as legend has it, they were dull and full of busy work. Nevertheless, I will admit, in classic educationese, that they were *meaningful* to me. As I learned something about methods, I was able to take hold in the classroom, my students began to learn what they were supposed to learn in the second grade, and I even found it possible to open the windows. Then, finally, as the screams of my nerves and conscience subsided, I started sleeping nights, and experiencing by day some of the feelings that make teachers stick to the profession.

My attitude now toward education courses can be summed up with a paraphrase of that old saying about money: "I have taught with education courses and without education courses, and, believe me, *with* is better." For just as an architect who wants to design a Guggenheim Museum must, in his college years, learn plumbing specifications, a teacher who wants to plant the kiss of the gods on the foreheads of his students has first to learn how to keep them sitting still long enough to make contact.

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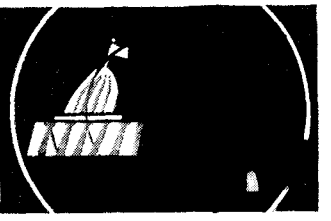
While School Keeps



THE CITIZENS' SCHOLARSHIP FOUNDATION, a unique do-it-yourself, college scholarship program, is sparking increasing interest in communities across the country. Founded in 1958 by Dr. Irving A. Fradkin, a Fall River, Massachusetts, optometrist, the program started with no funds, but a powerful idea. In the first year it sent twenty-four Fall River high school graduates on their way to college with substantial financial aid. It is still a shoestring operation, but now boasts more than 100 local chapters in twenty-nine states, and one state-wide, foundation-aided program launched last month in New Hampshire.

The idea is a simple one: to get each local citizen to contribute $1 annually to a college scholarship fund for local high school graduates who would not otherwise be able to continue their education. Business and community organizations are urged to contribute $100 or more, with scholarships awarded in their name.

The national foundation provides help and advice to communities in setting up chapters under a set of rules that are equally simple. The locals bear the name of the community and operate with complete autonomy in choosing officers, conducting campaigns, and selecting scholarship recipients. The CSF insists only that they be "non-salaried, non-profit organizations, led by responsible citizens of the community." All money raised locally stays in the community except for nominal dues of $50 paid annually to the national organization to help defray operating costs. Awards are made locally by a panel of leading citizens on the basis of need, scholastic achievement, unusual family circumstances, leadership potential, and initiative.

Starting with the twenty-four Fall River scholarships in 1958, the plan has now grown to the point where member communities made more than 1,500 awards last year, totaling $500,000. But in talking about his burgeoning idea, Dr. Fradkin emphasizes not only the tangible help given deserving students, but also the less tangible sense of civic pride and community responsibility which result from a program in which all citizens can participate.

Further information about the program can be obtained from the Citizens' Scholarship Fundation of America, Inc., 100 Purchase Street, Fall River, Massachusetts.

THE STORAGE AND RETRIEVAL of information has become a major problem for many contemporary institutions. Historically, libraries have been the main repositories for the accumulated records of human knowledge and experience. Their operation has most often been an extension of the academic world, presided over by a professional librarian or by a scholarly refugee from the social sciences or the humanities. But today the management of a major library is becoming increasingly an exercise in technology. The wave of the future may be forecast by the appointment of the new dean of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, Don R. Swanson. Neither a librarian by training nor a migrant scholar, Dean Swanson is a physicist and an authority on information systems.

TEXTBOOK CENSORS and would-be thought-controllers in the schools have been with us far longer than we usually remember, according to Jack Nelson and Gene Roberts, Jr., in their new book, "The Censors and the Schools" (Little, Brown, 208 pp., $4.50). The authors, both Southern newspapermen, undertook their study while Nieman Fellows at Harvard, and have done their homework well. A brief backward look through the years since the Civil War provides perspective on the detailed descriptions of contemporary events, individuals, organizations, and methods. The reader who has stayed up to date on school controversies since the mid-1940s will find little that is new, and the authors' approach is descriptive rather than analytical. Nevertheless, "The Censors and the Schools" is readable and informative, and should provide useful reference for schoolmen and citizens alike.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, a small (463 students) men's college on Philadelphia's Main Line, last month experimented for the second time with an unusual plan for scheduling final exams —each student picks his own time and place. Following an initial trial la May, when "the system ran surprisingl well," a repeat was staged at the end of this year's first semester with equally positive results.

Devised by students, the Haverford plan makes it possible for each student to select optimum circumstances for exam-taking. Here is how it works:

About a month before the ten-day exam period, each student lists his courses, the instructors, and the date and time he wants to take the exam. He also gives the Registrar's Office an envelope for each test on which is indicated the course, his name, the examination time and date. (Exams must be started either at 9 A.M. or 2 P.M.) Fifteen minutes before each student has scheduled his test, a student committee distributes the sealed envelopes to the examinees. Students then complete the tests, unmonitored, anywhere in either of two buildings. When finished, exam and question paper are returned to student committee members who turn them over to the Registrar's Office where professors can pick them up at their leisure.

Operating under the Haverford honor code, the plan has worked smoothly with no violations uncovered. The fac ulty is now considering whether it should be made permanent.

THE FIRST PEACE CORPSMEN will soon start returning to the U.S. upon completion of their two-year tour of duty abroad. They will come back with special knowledge and skills added to the talent and intelligence for which they were chosen in the first place. How effectively the nation will take advantage of the special experience of these potentially productive youngsters remains to be seen. But Michigan State University is getting set to do its share. "These are highly qualified people with high motivation and many of them want to return to school," says Dr. Ralph Smuckler, associate dean of International Programs at MSU. Therefore, the university is offering twenty or more graduate assistantships to returning corpsmen. They are worth $2,000 to $2,200 a year, plus waiver of out-of-state tuition, and require half-time teaching or research from the recipient. But the university expects to gain much more than part-time help from its uniquely experienced students. "We think it will benefit MSU," say Dean Smuckler, "to have these student. with their additional maturity and understanding of world affairs mixing with other graduate students."

—James Cass.

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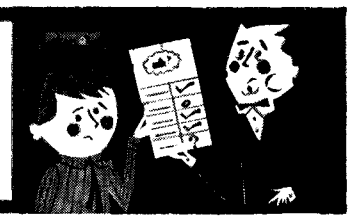
Report Card



ARTIST AT WORK. Robert Maynard Hutchins, a virtuoso in the art of minting quotable quotes, was in rare form at the recent Tenth Annual Convocation of the Fund for the Republic, which he heads. Addressing an appreciative luncheon audience on the opening day of the convocation in New York, he tossed off this one about the state where the Fund has its headquarters: "There are three magic words in California—water, highways, and education. Mention any one of them and you can get all the money you want. The only trouble is the water is undrinkable, the highways are impassable, and the education is unintelligible."

MOTHER KNOWS BEST. The Educational Supplement of the *Times* of London recently published, without comment, this excerpt from a mother's letter to a grammar school headmaster: "Once more a note to ask you to excuse Richard's unfinished homework but it's been ıgged on all this evening from 5 p.m. to 9 p.m. and I've now called it to a halt. I'm not certain whether he has not got the ability to assimilate or to applicate himself to the work but if he's not exhausted by it, I am, so please excuse him once again."

SOFT SELL. More than a hundred different manufacturing concerns are now turning out teaching machines, and the competition seems to be getting rough. One of the largest firms has a new gimmick. In a suburban snack bar not far from New York City, patrons are invited to fill out this form:

NEXT YEAR, MAYBE? Sixteen-year-old Kathleen Jennings, a junior at John Marshall High School in Richmond, Virginia, is a published poet. Ten of her verses, under the title "Love Poems at Sixteen" appear in the current issue of *Ingenue*. Not included in the collection is this one, published recently in her home-town newspaper, the Richmond *Times Dispatch:*

THE TEACHER

Yearly, like a bush,
she puts out her best efforts,
hoping that this year, maybe,
part of them will take hold
(somewhere)
and perhaps now into something
immortal.
But yearly, like a bush,
she dies a little as she watches
(with a carefully reserved smile)
her withering dreams.

". . . AND LONG EXPERIENCE MADE HIM SAGE." Michael V. (Mike) DiSalle, whose amiable aplomb as Director of Price Stabilization earned him the affectionate admiration of the nation a decade ago, and who later went on to become Governor of Ohio (he was defeated for reelection last fall), is in residence at the University of Massachusetts this semester as Distinguished Visiting Professor of Practical Politics.

—JOHN SCANLON.

(Contributions for this Column are welcome.)

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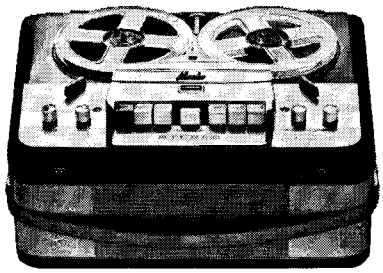

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Schools and Democracy

"Popular Education and Democratic Thought in America," by Rush Welter *(Columbia University Press. 473 pp. $8.50), traces the relationship between political and educational thought in the American tradition. Lawrence A. Cremin, the Frederick A. P. Barnard Professor of Education at Columbia University, is the author of "The Transformation of the School," a history of the progressive education movement.*

By LAWRENCE A. CREMIN

"ENLIGHTEN the people generally," Thomas Jefferson wrote to his friend du Pont de Nemours in 1816, "and tyranny and oppressions of body and mind will vanish like evil spirits at the dawn of day." His remark, part of a fascinating correspondence on the nature of constitutional government, epitomizes the boundless faith of the Enlightenment in the power of popular education. It was a faith widely shared by the generation that founded the American Republic, and it has been an essential article of American belief ever since. Indeed, Professor Welter rightly contends that one cannot understand the American experience apart from it. "American democratic theory," he argues, "has often been identical with a theory of education, and even where Americans have not reduced their theory of politics wholly to educational terms they have blended the two areas of social thought so closely as to make it impossible to understand their political thinking without also understanding its educational elements and assumptions." His thesis is the leitmotif of "Popular Education and Democratic Thought in America," an able and engaging history that ought to go far in helping us to redefine some of the central dilemmas of contemporary educational policy.

Interestingly enough, Welter deals only briefly, and in general critically, with the Founding Fathers themselves; for despite their liberal pretensions he finds them far from democratic in either their political or their educational views. Even Jefferson, whose ill-fated "Bill for the More General Diffusion of Knowledge" is often cited as the archetype of American democratic education, is taken to task; for while he sought to provide at least three years of public schooling for every free white child of the commonwealth, his goal remained the selection and training of leaders. One may quarrel with the interpretation here—I myself think Jefferson would have chosen an informed citizenry over an educated leadership—but Welter does have a point. Jefferson, after all, was something of a radical for his day, and even he, along with his contemporaries, divided society into leaders and followers, with an appropriate education for each.

It is rather in the Jacksonian era that Welter locates the first significant statement of American democratic theory in educational terms. The formulation came initially from the self-styled "workingmen" and "mechanics" of the seaboard milltowns and cities. Organized into the earliest American labor unions, they inveighed unceasingly against banks, corporations, turnpikes, and all other "licensed monopolies," repudiating virtually every form of traditional government participation in the economy. Instead, they proposed the establishment of a vast system of common schools. Once such schools had been legislated, they, rather than the state, would become the chief instrument of public policy. In Welter's words, labor defined democracy as "anarchy with a schoolmaster."

THE workingmen did not prevail politically, but they did have their way educationally. And strangely enough, the coalition that helped them achieve their goal included Whigs as well as Democrats, businessmen as well as unionists, and starry-eyed intellectuals as well as hard-headed politicians. While a minority of Americans continued to doubt that schools would ever be the business of government, a majority opted for public education; and under the leadership of men like Henry Barnard, Horace Mann, John Pierce, and Samuel Lewis, most of the states established some form of popular school system. By 1857 the Polish revolutionary Count Adam De Gurowski could observe enthusiastically: "On the common schools, more than any other basis, depends and is fixed the future, the weal and the woe of American society."

The very presence of the schools after the Civil War, and their continuing sensitivity to public opinion, made them a political factor to be reckoned with. Indeed, it is no surprise that post-war Americans, in contending with the problems of accelerating industrialization, came to conceive of r form increasingly in educational term Thus, Negroes sought to achieve equality of citizenship by extending popular schooling to the South. Farmers and workingmen sought to retain their share in the national income by promulgating programs of technical education. And humanitarians sought to alleviate the ills of poverty by establishing curricula in civics, hygiene, and nutrition. The result of these efforts was a radical redefinition of the school, one that plunged it squarely into the midst of the struggle for a better life.

Equally significant, perhaps, was the dramatic extension that occurred in the meaning of popular education itself. Americans had long prided themselves on their ability to learn from experience as well as books. Now that tradition became the basis for a new view of politics. Organizations like the Grange, the Farmers' Alliances, and the Knights of Labor spoke of themselves as instruments for teaching the working classes to be more efficient producers and more effective citizens. Social gospel ministers conceived of the pastorate as a vehicle for inculcating "Christian sociology." And a growing number of Populists picture their party as a school for molding enlightened public opinion. True, the classical distinction between education and propaganda virtually disappeared in this heady flow of rhetoric; but Americans were coming to accept the notion that the rationalizing of politics would ultimately demand the politicizing of education.

All of these many and varied reform impulses converged in the early twentieth-century philosophy of progressivism, which Welter sees as a culmination of the American tendency to merge political and educational theory. The key figure here, of course, was John Dewey, and the key work was "Democracy and Education" (1916). Welter refers to it as a "climactic statement of the progressive political philosophy," and rightly so. For nowhere else are the diverse and often contradictory values of the progressives more effectively synthesized or more persuasively articulated. Even more to the point, Dewey's "climactic statement" defined democracy in educational terms, as a social system in which individuals are constantly encouraged to deepen their insights, inform their judgments, ar rationalize their actions. And the chi instrument for nurturing such individuals would be a transformed system of popular schooling.

Now Dewey knew full well that the school is at best but one method for

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molding the young, and a relatively superficial method at that. Moreover, he shared with his contemporaries a se of the power and pervasiveness ... informal education. Yet it was to the school that he turned as the one institution sufficiently well organized to serve the progressive cause. His decision was a fateful one for American educational theory; for while it undoubtedly infused popular schooling with new vitality and high purpose, it effectively removed the agencies of informal education from the purview of public educators. With the extraordinary development of these agencies in succeeding years—cinema, radio, and then television—the education of the public would pass slowly but inexorably into other, less responsible hands. Dewey could hardly have anticipated this development in 1916; yet his later work never really took account of it. And even today, some of his disciples continue to confuse notions of schooling "the whole child" with nonsense about providing the child's whole education.

BE that as it may, there is no denying that the whole Deweyan outlook has gone out of style in contemporary America, and one of the most significant contributions of "Popular Education and Democratic Thought in America" is to plain why. Quite properly, Welter locates the dissolution of the Deweyan synthesis in the 1930s, and in ideas and events that lay well beyond the schools. The fact is that faith in popular intelligence waned steadily after World War I, partly in the face of Freudian and Marxian attacks on rationality, partly in the face of élitist attacks on democracy. And these attacks, coupled with the internal weaknesses of the progressive education movement, had begun to undermine public confidence in the schools long before any "challenge" from the Russians was perceived in the 1950s.

More importantly, perhaps, Welter confirms my own judgment that although progressivism as a movement is dead, a reformulation of its principles could well have dramatic relevance for contemporary education. "If modern political thought is to convince us that it offers an adequate theory of democracy," he writes, "it may be forced to reconsider the role of popular intelligence and hence of popular education in making democratic politics work." The point, though, is that such a reformulation must be something more n a restatement of traditional progressive views, or even of the questions that elicited them. But it must build on the progressive commitment to intelligence, for intelligence with all its limitations remains man's best tool for dealing with his experience.

Klineberg

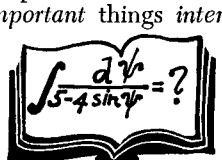
Continued from page 77

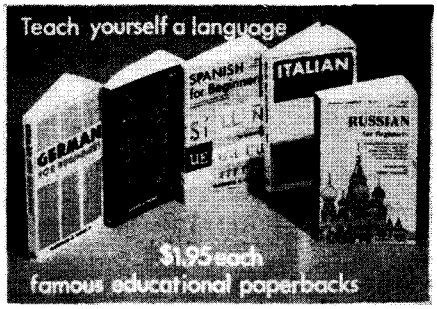
present writer feels that the proliferation of anthropomorphism and animism creates an unnecessary barrier to the intellectual development of children, who should rather be encouraged to make, as early as possible, a distinction which is in harmony with the truth. He finds it hard to believe that animistic distortion is necessary in order to attract the attention of even young children. In fact, he has met children of six who would show a pitying smile at such an insult to their intelligence.

As far as *moral* attitudes are concerned, the readers appear to be on relatively safe ground. They illustrate, without any overt preaching, the virtues of honesty, fair play, cooperation, family solidarity, work and thrift, friendship, independence, cleanliness, courage and forgiveness. There is even, as has already been indicated, an awareness and acceptance of differences in culture and background, but usually for people far removed in space and time. One could certainly wish for more of this in the case of those nearer home; for these, there are no negative or unfriendly references; they simply do not exist.

In regard to the desire to read further, the editors of these readers, some of whom are personally and favorably known to the present writer, presumably have based their choice of materials on a knowledge of the tastes and interests of children. It is hard to believe, however, that enough is being done to stimulate the *curiosity* of the children, to make them feel that they would like to know more. The readers do contain a number of well-written stories and some delightful poems, but almost no information. Surely, together with the reading of good prose or verse, a reader could do more to instruct the child.

This report concludes with two specific proposals. The first is that the analysis made of American readers be supplemented by a comparison with readers of other countries (France, the Soviet Union, Brazil, and Sweden, for example) to determine what can be discovered from their experience, and also to see what other children, no brighter than our own, can absorb at an early age. The second is the preparation of sample readers designed to give children a more complete and more adequate picture of American life, and capable at the same time of making *important* things *interesting*.





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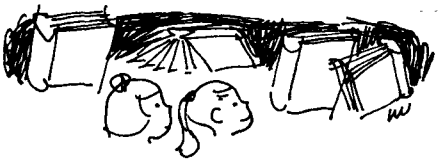

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Foreign Language

Continued from page 66

. ign language majors. To get more majors [in college] we must have inspiring teaching in freshman and sophomore courses. . . . And who teaches these courses? Instructors and teaching assistants. And who prepares the teaching assistants for this crucially important task? In some cases the instructors, in some cases—nobody."

But Mr. Walsh also points to the encouraging upsurge of interest, not only in more but better language instruction. He cites an ambitious project, conducted by Indiana University and financed by the Ford Foundation. It proposes to make available modern language instruction with the latest methods to every high school in Indiana, with every college-preparatory student counseled to study a foreign language for at least four years. Model teachers are to be trained at the university, and university experts are to offer technical and professional help to any high school teacher or administrator who asks for it.

While the past ten years have seen an almost miraculous mushrooming of language study in the United States, the movement is not without its dan- :. Like all novelties in American life, the ingredients of the school reform movement—and improved modern language teaching and learning is surely one of them—tend to be embraced as status symbols rather than as educational effort. If Scarsdale has a new language laboratory, the educational status-seekers say, "let's buy one, too." If New Trier offers early French, others want to top this by starting a year sooner. If Fairfield or Shaker Heights has switched to the "New American Method" (for aural-oral, as it is unfortunately called in the always abominable professional way of killing with labels), then competing systems will make sure that none of their teachers dares to teach grammar or engage in drill and dictation at all.

There are disturbing reports that language laboratories stand unused in many schools which prize possession above practice, and that others are misused as an inefficient crutch by inefficient teachers. There have been instances where modern languages were introduced in the elementary schools because "it's the thing to do," without prior effort either to get good teachers o make certain that the new offer- .. hitches onto the regular train of study in junior high and high school.

Mr. Walsh reports that a survey of elementary schools in twenty-nine states, two years ago, showed that "most of the programs were not really language programs, that far too much stress was put on learning isolated words out of context, that many so-called experimental programs had not defined the conditions of the experiment or made any provisions to evaluate the results, and that few programs were planned as part of an integrated sequence of learning throughout the grades." These observations lead to the suggestion that, before the *quantity* of language teaching, especially in the early grades, is increased, the *quality* be improved.

In fact, the MLA has published a "statement of policy" which should be of great value to communities interested in improving or introducing foreign languages in elementary school. It says bluntly that "hundreds of communities have ignored our warnings against faddish aspects of this movement and our insistence upon necessary preparations." The MLA counsels that a system that cannot provide both an elementary foreign language program and a six-year secondary-school foreign language sequence (grades seven through twelve) should first work toward establishing the latter. Otherwise the students' elementary school program's achievements will merely "wither on the vine." Once languages are introduced in elementary school, they must be an integral part of the school work, with a minimum of fifteen- to twenty-minute sessions at least three times a week, the experts advise. (Incidentally, the MLA also offers consultant services for the effective use of language laboratories.)

Lest these warnings be considered a wet blanket, the MLA added to the cautions of its survey team this positive conclusion: "With an enthusiastic teacher who has an adequate command of the foreign language, materials that reflect the nature of language and how it is learned, and expert supervision, American youngsters *can* learn and *are* indeed learning foreign languages very well in our elementary schools."

The conflict and the cautions, however, are not confined to elementary school language study. The wholesale shift to the aural-oral (or audio-lingual) "New American Method" has been received by experts, in Mr. Walsh's words, "with a mixture of wild enthusiasm and turmoil." Probably this is merely another reflection of the American tendency to swing from extreme to extreme. Very likely a danger lurks in the wings which may eventually open up in language circles the same kind of controversy that has split the reading fraternity between the "look-see" and the phonic approach. In either instance, a combination of the two methods—each at the proper time—is the most likely answer.

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dents, under a Carnegie Corporation grant, spent a summer in the Soviet Union, pledged solemnly to speak only Russian, after they had been taught the language at home in an intensive audio-lingual program. While they had nothing but praise for their initial preparation as an indispensable basis for

the spoken language, they called it imperative that this conversational facility be rapidly reinforced with more formal study of the language.

"What we had learned was fine to get around," said one of the students. "But when you start debating the Cold War and Marxian dialectics with Russians, you need something more solid." Even the subjunctive becomes a necessity in the long run.

Fortunately, there are now in the process of experimental production new materials which may show the way in that direction, ranging from new textbooks, complete with accompanying tapes and records, to programmed instruction (teaching machines and books) that will give the student an opportunity to move beyond polite conversation into true spoken and written fluency.

Whatever the timing or method, interest in foreign language study should not become excessively preoccupied with technique or even accomplishment to the neglect of the deeper implications of the uses of a language. It is quite possible to be an accomplished linguist and be illiterate and dull—even though fluent—in four or more languages.

The burden is on the teacher. The truly modern foreign language teacher must, in addition to the language, understand the literature and the life of the people who speak the language. "The ideal teacher," says Dr. Anderson, "should be able to represent another culture and make his pupils sensitive to another way of life."

This requires lack of soft sentimentality. The surest way to turn the new interest in modern languages into a short-lived boom, followed by a withdrawal into the shell of English-isolation, is to oversell the tenuous relationship between linguistic skills and international friendship.

LIKE learning itself, knowledge of a language can be put to peaceful or hostile use. The young German officers who paved the way for the invasion of Norway in World War II had been exchange students and even foster children in Scandinavia after World War I. They were masters not only of the language but of the culture and customs of the nation whose hospitality they repaid with hostility. Nor are Russian students, familiar with American ways and our language, any more or less likely to be our friends.

This should not lessen our national commitment to foreign language study. It should merely help avoid great disillusionment, in the aftermath of too great expectations. Whether our policies lead to peace or conflict, a knowledge of the languages of our friends, enemies, or mere contemporaries will help us play our part more intelligently and carry out our many missions more expertly. It is no guarantee of peace—and yet it is a prerequisite for it.

As with poetry, so with diplomacy—and even with tourism: it loses much in translation. Nobody really ever enters another country until he begins to open the inner doors with the only genuine key—language. The cliché that in this-or-the-other-country "everybody speaks English—so don't bother to learn the language" is a fallacy: Those who speak English are usually either the pro-American segment, often a small minority, or that part of the population intent on exploiting the American visitor (including politicians). The result is a wall of separation between Americans and vital sections of the other nation.

Today hundreds of thousands of American soldiers are stationed abroad. Foreign service personnel are scattered over the globe. In 1954, the late General Walter Bedell Smith, then Under Secretary of State, said: "We found to our astonishment that we did not have one single officer . . . in the Czech Embassy who spoke Czech." Six years later, James Reston warned in the *New York Times* that "sending a U.S. ambassador to Paris who cannot speak French is like inviting the French Cabinet to lunch and serving them Metrecal."

Since then many millions of dollars have been invested—wisely—in providing American federal employees with

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instruction in over forty languages. With over $30 billion of American capital invested directly in operations on foreign soil, language training by industry has be growing by leaps and bounds. As fo ravel, the State Department now issues in the neighborhood of 1,000,000 passports annually.

There should be no need to stress the "uses" of foreign language study in a world which, through Telstar, has internationalized vision more readily than comprehension. But there is need for a warning as new methods and materials are selling their superiority, that old-fashioned ingredients of language study are still hard work and much practice. "In six easy lessons" is an old come-on, and a phony one. Modern methods and electronic teaching aids have made language learning more efficient and study more interesting. The addition of up-to-date films and records and, most recently, the use of telephone dials which may "connect" the student instantly with a German play, a French poetry reading, or a Russian recital—all of this has broadened the scope of study as much as the jet plane has speeded the pace of travel. But success still depends on the student and his mind.

THE most encouraging fact, however, is that the interest has truly caught on. Mr. Walsh tells the story of a high s ol in Columbus, Indiana, where a brilliant teacher of Russian had been found after a long search. A month after he began teaching, he was told to report back for duty as a clerk-typist in the Air Force. His students remembered a campaign speech in their home town by a Presidential candidate—Senator John F. Kennedy—telling them to turn to him for help if they ever needed it. The time of need, they decided, had come. The Senator had moved into the White House. An appeal to the President and the publicity resulting from it returned the teacher to his classroom where the students gave him a hero's welcome.

It is hard to imagine that an American President in the 1920s—say, a Calvin Coolidge—could have considered foreign language teaching a matter of national concern. It is even more unlikely that high school students then might have gone to the White House to protect their right to study Russian.

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(Continued from page 93)

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KINGSLEY DOUBLE-CROSTIC NO. 1506

Reg. U.S. Patent Office

By Doris Nash Wortman

DEFINITIONS

A. Temporary hut of Amer. nomadic Indians, of rough frames covered with reeds, grass, or brushwood.

B. What Hotspur told Glendower he would rather be than a "ballad-monger" *(Henry IV, Pt. 1)*.

C. Rhetorical use of a word to modify or govern two or more words with only one of which it really makes sense.

D. Inconsistency.

E. Peak, 14,000-ft.-plus, W. cent. Colorado (2 wds.).

F. Instinctive parental affection of animals.

G. Prevented fluctuations.

H. Given name of the first Mrs. Woodrow Wilson.

I. Stir up anew.

J. The European to us, we to him.

K. In equal parts (comp.).

L. Slang for neither of two sides having an advantage (2 wds.).

WORDS

34 98 13 16 93 108 144

71 52 48 207 139 17

99 82 166 164 57 111

36 112 63 165 141 7 70 8 46 206 77

2 147 153 12 190 120 194 26 18 161 140

195 167 119 175 60 205

145 39 154 110 196 188 72 100 170 47

56 23 199 130 122

201 10 174 182 149 20 142 155

148 158 200 115 31 101 181 85 40 11 123 187 173

169 25 3 79 180 107 103 90 177 22 203

87 9 137 37 53 152 121 192 136 74

DEFINITIONS

M. Crystalline substance from brain tissue, mixture of phrenosin and kerasin.

N. Resident physician in hospital.

O. Strait now being bridged between Long and Staten Islands (2 wds.).

P. Australian native's term for a horse.

Q. Positive rejection of what is stated or asserted.

R. Place where the men are paid in a lumber camp (from the Indian).

S. Clearly.

T. Excellent tenor singer, esp. of old radio days, born in Seattle (2 wds.).

U. S. African town, site of severe battles and siege during Boer War.

V. Following "of the", how St. Paul described Adam, the first man (2 wds.).

W. Renewed attention to something.

X. Active Italian volcano, on an island of the same name.

WORDS

19 202 80 58 24 78 69 15

86 35 104 61 27 65

146 135 185 83 114 102 109 1 67 176

4 14 129 125 91 113 95 6

32 126 38 96 179 143 171 75 204

186 183 92 94 163 156 21 134

29 138 116 162 193 41 168 97 68

150 45 55 62 128 172 132 73 159

189 50 84 44 117 118 28 89 178

157 124 88 160 105 66 191 59 42 49 64

133 106 76 198 184 54 127

151 51 30 5 197 131 33 43 81

DIRECTIONS

To solve this puzzle you must guess twenty-odd WORDS, the definitions of which are given in the column headed DEFINITIONS. Alongside each definition, there is a row of dashes—one for each letter in the required word. When you have guessed a word, write it on the dashes, and also write each letter in the correspondingly numbered square of the puzzle diagram. . . When the squares are all filled in, you will find that you have completed a quotation from some published work. If read up and down, the letters in the diagram have no meaning. . . Black squares indicate ends of words; if there is no black square at the right side of the diagram, the word carries over to the next line . . . When all the WORDS are filled in, their initial letters spell the name of the author and the title of the piece from which the quotation has been taken. Of great help to the solver are this acrostic feature and the relative shapes of words in the diagram as they develop. Authority for spellings and definitions is Webster's New International Dictionary, Second Edition.

		1 O	2 E	3 K	4 P		5 X	6 P	7 D		8 D	9 L	10 I	11 J	12 E		13 A
14 P	15 M		16 A	17 B	18 E	19 M	20 I		21 R	22 K	23 H		24 M	25 K	26 E	27 N	
28 U	29 S	30 X	31 J		32 Q	33 X	34 A	35 N		36 D	37 L	38 Q	39 G	40 J	41 S	42 V	
43 X	44 U		45 T	46 D	47 G		48 B	49 V	50 U	51 X		52 B	53 L		54 W	55 T	
	56 H	57 C	58 M	59 V	60 F	61 N	62 T	63 D	64 V		65 N	66 V	67 O		68 S	69 M	
70 D	71 B		72 G	73 T		74 L	75 Q	76 W	77 D	78 M		79 K	80 M	81 X	82 C	83 O	
84 U	85 J	86 N	87 L	88 V		89 U	90 K	91 P	92 R		93 A	94 R		95 P		96 Q	
97 S	98 A	99 C	100 G	101 J	102 O	103 K		104 N	105 V	106 W	107 K		108 A	109 O	110 G	111 C	
112 D		113 P	114 O	115 J		116 S	117 U		118 U	119 F	120 E	121 L	122 H	123 J	124 V	125 P	
126 Q	127 W	128 T		129 P	130 H	131 X	132 T	133 W	134 R		135 O	136 L		137 L	138 S	139 B	
140 E		141 D	142 I	143 Q	144 A	145 G		146 O	147 E	148 J	149 I	150 T		151 X	152 L	153 E	
154 G	155 I	156 R	157 V	158 J	159 T		160 V	161 E		162 S	163 R	164 C		165 D	166 C	167 F	
	168 S	169 K	170 G	171 Q	172 T		173 J	174 I	175 F	176 O		177 K		178 U	179 Q	180 K	
181 J		182 I	183 R	184 W	185 O		186 R	187 J	188 G	189 U		190 E	191 V	192 L	193 S		
194 E		195 F	196 G	197 X	198 W	199 H	200 J	201 I		202 M	203 K	204 Q	205 F	206 D	207 B		

Solution of last week's Double-Crostic will be found on page 12 of this issue.

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